

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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PUBLICATION OF THE PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

THICKER THAN WATER

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EDITED BY

ROBERT WUNSCH

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Editor's Page

TEACH TOLERANCE?

"TEACHING tolerance is a major problem of 1939 for American Education."

So declared J. W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education, in praising the Board of Education of New York City for requiring every New York City school to devote two assemblies a month to the teaching of tolerance and goodwill, and Superintendent Campbell for urging principals and teachers to find opportunities for inculcating the ideals of democracy in daily classroom work.

The statement is in accordance with the best traditions of American liberalism, and it reflects a strong and continuing faith in schooling. Neither you nor I are likely to question either the need for tolerance in 1939 or the desirability of teaching it. Nevertheless a very difficult question still remains: how are New York City principals and teachers, and you and I, and other liberal and well intentioned educators going to teach tolerance?

TEACHING ABOUT TOLERANCE

ONE answer, well in line with some of our school traditions, is to teach *about* tolerance—to talk about it or have guest speakers or pupils talk about it, to have essays written about it, to write some appropriate slogans, quotations, and perhaps poetry on blackboards, or even—since this is 1939—to show a movie or two on the subject. Much of our citizenship teaching has followed that pattern. We have taught how government is organized and what good citizenship is—and hoped thereby to make good citizens. We have taught physiology

and rules of healthful living—and hoped, or even expected, that because the rules were known they would therefore be followed. Some of us have taught about the League of Nations, international goodwill and peace—and hoped that pupils would become internationally minded and hate war.

Such instruction can scarcely do any harm—unless pupils get too bored, or perhaps some well-meaning sentimentalist makes the subject ridiculous, or just possibly some domineering or otherwise unpleasant personality arouses antagonism and a defiant negative response. But neither does it achieve its high purpose. It may, to be sure, set up standards for those who are attentive. It may stimulate thought on the part of those who are inclined to think. Presented with an emotional appeal it may actually influence the attitudes and conduct of the impressionable, for a time at least. Yet most of the citizens who fail to vote have studied civics. Many who are unnecessarily in bad health were once in hygiene classes. No doubt some chauvinists were once exposed to units on peace. And—to reverse the picture for a moment—a good many young citizens have studied Russian history without becoming Communists!

THE WORLD BEYOND THE CLASSROOM

WHEN we "teach tolerance"—or start out consciously to mold any other attitude—we often forget the contrary influences that bear on most of our pupils. Assemblies twice a month, or even forty-five minutes a day for five days a week dur-

ing ten months of the year is a small fraction of pupils' time. Suppose that this morning in assembly and tomorrow afternoon in history class we consider, a bit academically, tolerance. It is likely that this morning's headlines and tonight's radio news broadcast and Friday evening's news review in the movies help us hate Hitler and the Japanese, and confirm our suspicions of Mexicans. This noon's pep rally and tonight's game may intensify our rivalry with a nearby school. Dad may be blaming the New Deal for most of his troubles, the CIO for the rest, and may think Harry Bridges should be deported and Secretary Perkins impeached. One of the neighbors agrees, thinks the Klan should be revived, and all aliens barred from jobs until natives are employed. School clubs, college fraternities, student organizations have their prejudices and barriers—just like those of adults. And no end of other convictions and prejudices are breathed in both out of school and in school—not excepting assemblies and social studies classes.

CAN IT BE DONE?

SUPERINTENDENT Campbell, however, went a bit farther. Opportunities, he is reported to have said, "are ever present in the history, geography, and literature periods. In health education particularly . . . a 'spirit of fair play' in games and folk dances would help to develop a sympathetic outlook toward other races and religions."

Perhaps so, to some extent, although plenty of intolerance has survived and even thrived on such close contacts. But at least an ounce of the practice so suggested is worth pounds of prescription and precept. If real tolerance is to be achieved, it must come from experience—not from sentimentality or rationalization, but from hard-won learning to tolerate what is distasteful, learning to listen to arguments that go against the grain, learning to allow and expect others to believe and do what we prefer them not to believe or do, and to state their beliefs and promote their policies as

effectively as we would like to do our own.

DO WE WANT TOLERANCE?

TOLERANCE so defined has some dangers. To many it suggests lack of conviction. It puts a strain on human nature and even on consistency; few of those who would now reduce anti-semitism would also counsel tolerance of Hitler. Most of us like to cherish our prejudices, and our privilege of shifting them readily with our moods and the changing headlines, though some, based on ignorance, we gradually yield to education and broadening experience.

Teaching tolerance, like other forms of indoctrination that are theoretically and superficially desirable, raises some basic questions about the teaching of attitudes in general, a highly important aspect of social studies teaching. Tolerance of what? Whose kind of tolerance? Is the purpose really the development of tolerance, or a propagandist effort to substitute a new for an old set of prejudices? Tolerance taught how?—in terms of information and precept only?—of emotional appeals calculated to impose some adult attitude?—or a series of broadening experiences through which pupils are enabled to live and grow naturally except as they are encouraged occasionally to analyze and criticize their experience and their ideas?

Beyond question schools in general and social studies classes in particular do mold and help mold attitudes. Usually the process is unconscious, and most of it merely supplements and enforces the current and dominant attitudes of the world outside school, including most of their variations, inconsistencies, and unattractiveness. When anything more is attempted all the powerful forces in society for molding opinion may be encountered. That's an easy excuse for doing nothing. It is also a compelling reason for building a program of experience that goes beyond two assemblies a month and casual pointing of morals in class and around the school.

ERLING M. HUNT

The Challenge to the Social Studies

CHARLES C. BARNES

PRACTICALLY every phase of life has been challenged within recent years. Institutions, customs, and traditions that had developed through long periods of time and were thought to be resting on solid foundations already have fallen or are being modified to fit new demands and new conditions. The life of today is as different from the life of fifty years ago as was life in the nineteenth-century different from that of the middle ages. When we give thought to the changes that have taken place in American life during recent years we are amazed. We see a change that will, doubtless, go down in history as a social revolution without parallel in the story of civilization. Just what it will be called we can not yet tell. We are still too close to it. In fact we are still in it. We are not able to see the picture in its true perspective.

The adults of today, born into a comparatively simple and settled life, have been compelled to adjust themselves to the many new conditions of an extremely unsettled life. The great shift of population from farms to cities has largely taken place during this period since the closing of the frontier and the loss of opportunity to go west

when conditions of life became too difficult in the East. It is the period of a number of epoch-making inventions and industrial developments, such as the automobile, aviation, electric refrigeration, the motion picture, and the radio. During the past fifty years we have seen such an advance in medical science that the average span of life has been extended by many years. The proportion of older people in our population has been greatly increased—for that and other reasons. The position of women has been changed. Women have been granted the right to vote. The mechanical inventions of recent years have so changed the work in the home that large groups of women have more leisure than formerly. In large numbers, women have entered into competition with men in nearly every type of work and in the professions. The period has also seen the world's greatest war, a period of business inflation, and the world's worst depression.

WE have seen an enormous spread of social, economic, and political ills. The extent of crime since the World War is enough to stagger the imagination. J. Edgar Hoover, director of the federal bureau of investigation, recently estimated the number of criminals in the United States as 4,600,000 and the cost of crime in this country as fifteen billion dollars a year. Unemployment is another evil of the times. During normal times conditions were so organized that a certain number of unemployed were taken for granted; but when the number out of work rose to ten or fifteen million it became a serious strain on the

In accordance with our custom we publish here the 1938 presidential address to the National Council for the Social Studies. Mr Barnes is director of social studies in the public schools of Detroit, and professor in Wayne University.

social structure. Another set of evils is found in politics. The rapid growth of cities along with the assumption of increased functions by all branches of government has made irregularities very common if not almost inevitable.

This general confusion in American life is largely due to the fact that our material development has created social problems more rapidly than we have been able to provide solutions. Our material resources, technical and industrial skill, are enough to afford to every person physical comfort, adequate leisure, and all the culture he is able to enjoy, but in place of these we often see the very opposite. Over and over again we have shown our inability to grapple successfully with the social problems that face us, and this inability in turn shows the inadequacy of our educational and regulatory agencies. To develop an educational program in the school that can meet the needs of today requires both wisdom and courage. This is the challenge. Failure to accept such a challenge must inevitably lead to impotence.

HOW CAN THE CHALLENGE BE MET?

WHILE education in general is concerned with the preparation of youth to meet all the conditions of life, the social studies deal with the interrelations of men and nations. The individual social studies as organized subject matter came into the school curriculum in response to definite needs. Yet after civics, economics, sociology, and the rest were in the schools, and as social conditions changed, there arose a demand for a new arrangement or organization of social information. This has developed into what we call today the social studies. Social studies may be defined as the vast body of literature dealing with human affairs.

The chief defect in the program of the social studies in American schools today is the lack of a definite plan or sense of direction. Before its program can really function there must be found a genuine social gospel. Today each community seems to think that

it must have its own curriculum different from others. Writers of textbooks and books on educational method must present a new point of view in order to enter the field at all. In the face of all this confusion school administrators and teachers take refuge in tradition.

WHAT should the social studies attempt to do in circumstances such as these? The complete answer to that question may still continue to elude us, of course, but some of the more important needs of youth seem to be very clear. Boys and girls should gain an understanding of existing social institutions through a study of relations in the home, school, community, state, nation, and nations of the world. This involves a study of social institutions both past and present. It includes education in all the activities that are concerned in such institutions. They should develop an understanding of the interdependence of men and nations, and, because of that understanding, develop the broader social mindedness essential to human progress. Boys and girls should be helped to see and analyze the possible relations between interference with the free exchange of goods and ideas between men and nations as a hindrance to social progress. They should be helped to see the problems involved in peace and war and to work and hope that nations may develop peaceful means of settling disputes just as have individuals in civilized communities.

THE social studies should contribute to the developing of ability in reflective thinking on the solution of social problems. The school through the social studies should develop a love for reading and thinking in the field of human relations. If this is done it will tend to assure an adult interest and efficient participation in public affairs and help to keep the individual abreast of the times in a rapidly changing civilization. The social studies should help to develop in children such qualities as

social consciousness, broadmindedness, openmindedness, tolerance, initiative, adaptability, unselfishness, cooperation, respect for the rights of others, loyalty to ideals, and a feeling of personal responsibility to promote and defend the right in every cause. It is true that many social problems will not be solved by this new generation, but who knows when some social genius may arise comparable to an Edison or a Kettering in the physical world? Through the social studies the schools should strive to develop an intellectual curiosity that will extend beyond the period of formal education and thus stimulate continued growth and development as an adult. Learning should not be, as is often the case today, something to be laid aside as soon as the days of formal schooling are over.

The schools must train children not only to understand society today but to possess a sense of individual obligation to participate in its activities in order that society may be improved by their contributions. Citizens should be willing to vote even if inconvenient, to serve on juries and perform other civic duties even at the expense of their private business. They should be helped to understand that individual security and happiness is possible only in a good and efficient society.

THE social studies should help the individual to find a satisfactory place for himself in his own group and in the community—socially, economically, politically, and culturally. They should develop the social skills and knowledges necessary for efficiency as members of society, should give boys and girls training in the things they will be called upon to do. The social studies are interested in the vocation of a citizen. A citizen with a vocation and work to do is usually a good citizen. The school is interested not only in the vocation of the citizen but also in his avocation. A person's avocation usually determines how he spends his leisure hours. Leisure time hangs heavy on the hands of the individual who has few

side interests. Hobbies and interests are without number. The school should help to develop them. Every boy and girl at a certain age wants to know how to behave correctly, but many do not learn this at home. They must find out. Why should the school not teach them in a regular way?

FINALLY, as a general objective, the essential task of the school through the social studies is to aid youth to the fullest possible understanding of our social order, to an understanding of the ways by which the individual may participate effectively in that order, and to motivate individuals for such participation.

WHAT CAN THE SCHOOL DO?

IT is one thing to state an objective and still another thing to accomplish the thing that ought to be done, and I do not overlook these facts. I should like, however, to offer some suggestions as to how the schools can give our young people the kind of training that will enable them to meet the problems of their lives.

One of the important controversies in education today is about the question of how to handle controversial questions in the school. We do not have our young people in school discuss controversial questions simply because they are controversial or just for the sake of discussion. Pupils can not expect to solve most of the social problems of today, but such questions provide the kind of subject matter needed to develop traits that we want. We need to teach our pupils how to study problems and the best way to do this is by studying problems.

We find in Detroit, and the same thing is true in many other places, that the best way to have young people study the problems involved in democratic election procedure is to give them practice in conducting a real election. Each year for several days preceding the regular election our pupils from sixth to twelfth grades study the candidates and issues of the political campaign. Then on election day they vote a

regular ballot containing the names of real candidates and issues. Will the children vote as their parents do? Perhaps they will. If you ask which do the influencing, I am not sure. In Detroit our school vote has so nearly paralleled the adult vote for a number of years that some one half jokingly and yet half in earnest suggested that the school vote, at a cost of less than four hundred dollars, might replace the regular election which cost the city more than a hundred thousand dollars.

In the discussion of problems the schools should lead pupils to weigh evidence, not to be moved by it. Thorndike advises the replacement of discussion and persuasion by statements of relevant facts, and of the probabilities that may be derived from those facts. In the social studies it is not the duty of the school to indoctrinate in particular beliefs. When we find groups of our most intelligent citizens differing honestly on current social issues, how can we expect our teachers to have the one correct doctrine? It is our duty, however, to teach pupils how to study and to discuss all types of problems. It is not so much the content but the method that concerns us.

NEW SUBJECT MATTER

PROGRESSIVE schools today are demanding that some of the subjects or topics that have been included in the curriculum for a long time give way to some new materials. Education began in Early America as the three R's. As time has passed new subjects have been added. History and geography were taught before the close of the eighteenth century. During the nineteenth century civics, economics, and sociology were added. In each case the new material was brought into the schools, because some influential group of people saw a definite need for it.

In the early years of the twentieth century, after the separate social studies had found a place in the schools, development and change continued. In 1916 we saw a new course introduced, called Problems of

American Democracy, which attempted to bring together the three subjects of civics, economics, and sociology in such a way as to offer a more realistic study of present day society. The course as originally planned was a big step forward. Even this course did not change the content of the curriculum to any great degree. It changed only the form of organized material.

NOT until within the past few years, however, have the schools, grudgingly, been finding a place for some new subjects of study. It has taken a series of revolutionary social changes over a period of twenty years to stir us into activity. In education, as in religion, we see needed changes long before we are able to put them into practice.

In considering some of the newer subjects of the modern curriculum, I will mention only a few. You will be able to supply many others.

One of the most pressing of the newer demands is the education of the consumer. This is a universal problem. Everyone is a consumer, and the great majority of us need to be taught how to spend our incomes to the best advantage. As a result of the need and the demand we see courses in consumer education offered in the schools, consumer research groups organized, and consumer cooperatives formed.

Another problem concerning which young people of high school age are demanding instruction in marriage and the family. Whenever a group of boys and girls are given an opportunity to indicate what they would like to discuss, marriage and family life stand high in the list. And yet, even in the face of these indications, how often do we find instruction of this kind offered in the schools? Closely related to marriage and the family is the problem of housing. It has not been so long ago that housing, as a subject to study in school, had not been dreamed of. It might have been better for a great many people today if we had studied housing problems twenty years ago. The question involves not only the

buying or renting of a house but also of furnishing it. The class may discuss the type and quality of home furnishings best suited to various income groups. Here is where the problem is closely related to that of consumer education.

Another problem prominent today is that involving propaganda. The question of how we are to detect propaganda, and how to guard ourselves against it is of concern to every one of us. How are we going to teach our children in our homes and in the schools how to react to the clever suggestions that come to them by way of the billboard, the radio, magazine advertisements, and so on? With the interest that has been developed in this subject we need not be surprised at the publication of *Propaganda Analysis*.

I shall mention just one more of these problems. We have before us, I believe as never before, the problem of genuinely socializing the group. In our large urban communities we have divergent classes that would make the caste system of India look insignificant. There are the various economic groups from the extremely poor to the wealthy. Then we have the various racial and nationality groups all living close together in a small area. Crisscross among all these groups there is likely to run feeling of antagonism, jealousy, and hatred. How can these people be brought to live in harmony with one another? The schools in general and the social studies in particular must play an important part in the solution.

Someone is asking, "How can we find time for problems of this type?" Everything that finds a place in the school is there by the process of comparative selection. This is true regardless of the basis of comparison. When we are convinced that one thing has more teaching value than another, that should be enough.

NEED FOR BETTER TEACHERS

THE social studies teacher must meet a part of the challenge. In spite of the fact that we are getting better trained teachers

than ever before, we are being handicapped by the fact that a few of our prominent teacher-training institutions are still turning out "majors" in history, geography, and so on, who have little or no knowledge of related fields and who have no desire to use related material. Teachers must know more subject matter and know it better, because they have to be able to use materials from many fields and to point out the important relations between them. The social studies teacher should be well informed in all the social fields. A major in some one field? Of course. But in addition teachers should have courses in other fields.

DOES it require too much to ask that social studies teachers come to us with as much as seventy-five or more semester hours in the social sciences, distributed among the various fields? This is the program for the master's degree in at least one teacher training school at the present time. Society has a right to demand the very best in its teachers. As teachers we are working with the children of the community, and the community pays us for doing it. We sometimes complain because we are not fully appreciated and are not paid enough for our services. The fault is largely with the teaching profession. As we raise the level of our professional group and make our services indispensable to the welfare of society the compensating rewards will be forthcoming.

We as members of a profession should help to select the best as teachers. By the best I do not mean necessarily the brightest. Intellect alone is not enough. There is a type of teaching personality that we ought to be able to detect early enough to direct it into teaching.

CHANGE OF METHODS

NOT only must teachers be better informed, but teachers must know how to teach. I do not mean to infer that there is only one way to teach, nor do I mean that everyone can use a particular plan equally

well. Teaching is somewhat like calling football plays. The well trained and resourceful team has many different plays for whatever emergencies may arise; and anyone who has ever taught a roomful of children knows that emergencies arise.

The prevailing method of teaching in American schools, particularly secondary schools, is a combination of question and answer and the close adherence to the textbook. This method, which developed in America when teachers were unable to do otherwise, has persisted with the tenacity of a religious belief. It does not take into account the teachings of modern psychology or the discoveries of good teachers. The question and the textbook must be supplemented by other procedures in order to meet all pupil needs.

The teacher should not be a faddist in method. If one always took to the new, he would be jumping from one thing to another all the time. A few years ago everything was socialization or working with the group. Now we find programs emphasizing individual needs. Of course both are needed. Individuals differ and need to be handled as individuals part of the time. On the other hand every individual is a member of numerous groups where he needs to know how to get along. So our advice is to adopt some new methods, cling to some old ones, and altogether to seek to adapt both to one's own mind and personality.

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

TO whom can they look for guidance in this maze of new ideas and new materials in which teachers find themselves? Are they to be left to their own ingenuity, or should there be some group or organization to whom they might look for help? There is

one organization that might serve. It is the National Council for the Social Studies.

The National Council for the Social Studies is an organization of social studies teachers organized to help meet the needs of the times. If the Council hopes to have social studies teachers and school administrators look to it for leadership, it must deserve that leadership. It is not enough to meet in convention and discuss a multitude of topics, and to issue yearbooks and bulletins on topics of interest to a special few. The Council is looked to for guidance in the development of a program to meet the needs of youth. Such a program might be either in the form of a generalized curriculum that school people could adapt to local needs, or in a group of general principles that teachers and school administrators might use in developing their own courses of study. In either case the National Council would be furnishing professional guidance much needed at the present time.

In assuming leadership in the social studies field I do not mean that the National Council should go off on a wild goose chase after every fad that comes along; but rather that it should evaluate the various proposals and give teachers the benefit of group judgment. Might it not be better to present a yearbook as a statement from the Council rather than to shift the responsibility to individuals? A large number of individual statements tends to leave the mind of the teacher in a state of confusion. On the other hand the effective programs of the past have been committee programs. A great many teachers not only need but want this kind of guidance. All this assumes of course that the leaders of the National Council can come to something approaching an agreement, and I believe this can be done.

More About Reading

MARY CANTY

ONE of the salient characteristics of twentieth-century education in the United States is the development and widespread use of standardized tests. While these tests have been misused at times, they have served to give us new points of view in regard to individual and school achievement and to increase the efficiency of teaching, at least in the tool subjects. Without the aid of these tests we know that a child is a poor reader, but with a carefully standardized test we can tell just how poor—though that is cold comfort—and we can see just how he compares with the average child of his grade and age. When a reading test and a nonverbal intelligence test are used to rate the same child, we can tell whether he is doing as well as could be expected with his mental equipment, or whether he needs remedial treatment to bring him up to the average for his mental grade and age.

Now don't look skeptical and tell me that there is no such thing as an average child. I realize that, too, but there is such a thing as an average of achievement, and I can

Social studies teachers are constantly complaining that too many of their pupils are unable to read, but most do nothing about it. Here a teacher of the sixth grade in the Hutchinson School, Pelham, New York, suggests some of the things that can be done about it. In December, 1937, *Social Education* published another article by the same author, "What About Reading?"

not think that it is being unreasonable to expect a child with a mental age of ten years at least to approach the norm for ten-year olds.

When reading and nonverbal intelligence tests are given to a group in the intermediate grades, in a school where the sheep and the goats have not been separated, we find a range in reading ages and in mental ages of from five to seven years. No educator becomes alarmed or surprised at this spread in reading ability. It is accepted, as it should be, as the only thing to expect, and as a normal situation.

WITH the general acceptance that has been accorded to this range in reading, one would suppose that it would be kept in mind at all times, but too often it is ignored when other subjects are being considered. Too many teachers see the child's education as a conveniently striped piece of material with a clean blue stripe for reading, a red stripe for history, and perhaps a dull gray one for spelling. All the colors are pure and unadulterated; each stripe runs vertically and never infringes upon another. Reading is reading, and history is history, and the two shall never become involved with one another, at least not in the teacher's mind.

Extreme integrationists, or the "Fusion Party," see education as a piece of expensive Scotch tweed with all the colors included but all so skillfully interwoven that no one stands out as an entity. If you look closely, you may discern a fleck of red or of blue, but the general effect is neutral, not

dominated by any one color, nor containing solid blocks of color.

Now I like Scotch tweed myself, and I think that this theory of education is a very fine and idealistic one, but I know, too, that it takes a weaver of the utmost skill to produce a perfect piece of goods. I doubt that I have the requisite ability. I am content to make my own weaving a piece of plaid gingham. All the stripes stay in, but besides running vertically they run horizontally, each one coloring the others as they cross. It is about the place where the blue stripe of reading crosses the red stripe of history and produces a sort of purplish hue that I wish to speak.

WHY TRY TO IMPROVE READING?

WHY should teachers of social studies be interested in seeing that instruction is improved to the point where each child is doing the best reading of which he is capable? Because trying to teach history or geography to a child who can not read, or who reads very poorly, is like trying to teach a youngster who can not see or hear. One important avenue of approach is closed to you. Of course, it can be done and is being done. For that matter, consider what a good teacher did for Helen Keller. You may call it laziness, but I see no point in doing things the hard way when an easier one lies within reach.

Reading is not the only way to teach a child with any amount of intelligence, great or small. There are many kinds of teaching aids which should be used, such as trips, models, pictures, and any number of others that you can name without my telling you, but reading remains the cheapest and easiest basic method. Through reading you can present material that can not be presented in any other way. You can provide variety and quantities of information that must supply the background for any activity program. Furthermore, the bright child will learn from such other aids more easily than the dull one, just as he learns more easily from books. The ability to learn from more

concrete methods is not always in inverse ratio to the ability to read. The slow child will not learn rapidly from any method of presentation, and we should therefore see to it that such reading capacity as he may have is fully developed.

One of the most encouraging trends in the field of reading is the tendency to discard such explanations of reading difficulty as wordblindness and lefthandedness, neither one of which could be remedied by the school or by training. The explanation now generally offered is faulty grounding in essentials, which in turn may be caused by absence, poor teaching, or lack of attention to mental age when instruction in reading was begun.

Gates says that any child with an IQ of 70 or over can be taught to read. Now, of course, a child on that level won't be intensely interested in reading *The Rise of American Civilization* in the sixth grade, but he can read something. We are not justified in throwing up our hands and saying that he just can't read. He can, but he must be taught so as to make the best use of his ability and must be supplied with material in all subjects that is not too difficult for him.

HOW TRY TO IMPROVE READING?

LET me say, at this point, that I do not believe that children can pick up reading merely by making frequent use of it. In my opinion, that theory does not hold water. How can you make use of something which you do not have? How would you like to pick up French from just reading it? You might be able to do it, but most of us need more specific instruction. We want a basic vocabulary to start with. We want rules to guide us in unfamiliar situations, and we want to know how the new language resembles and differs from the one with which we are familiar.

Some children, it is true, seem to have a natural aptitude for reading and need very little aid in acquiring skill in the subject. In almost any first grade, there are

a few children who grasp reading with very little effort either on their part or on the part of their teacher. Others, and not always those with average or below average intelligence, need a great deal of help. They need a sight vocabulary built up to begin with. They have to learn some method of word analysis. They must be taught other habits to prevent slipshod performance.

Reading mechanics constitute definitely a mechanical skill and should be taught as such. At the same time, a competent teacher can make drills in mechanics so interesting that they lose any suggestion of drudgery. Even without such drills, children might pick up reading if exposed sufficiently, but the chances are ten to one that it would take much longer and would result in a performance that would be anything but finished. This would later necessitate remedial treatment which is much harder than teaching correctly in the first place. The same is true of any mechanical skill. Those of you who play golf or tennis know that a few hours of expert instruction is of more help to your game than months of hit and miss playing. If you waited until you had developed bad habits in those games before seeking expert advice and help, you know how hard it was to unlearn the wrong way before you could learn the right.

For economy of time, then, and for the prevention of self-taught errors, I believe that there should be formal instruction in reading throughout the grades. Of course, that instruction will not be the same for all members of the class, but it must be definite and directed. Reading should not be left to chance development in connection with other subjects.

STILL, we don't ever become good tennis players merely through expert instruction in how to lob, chop, and volley. It is constant playing that makes habitual those skills taught during formal instruction periods. In this same way, our reading skills need constant practice to make them a part of our mental equipment which will be

always ready for instant use. The actual playing of a game gives enjoyment and purpose to our practice of game skills, and our reading must have the same kind of enjoyable, purposeful practice. It is in supplying this practice that social studies can make a splendid contribution to the reading program. Expecting some of our poorer readers to get practice from the material we give them is like expecting the fellow who was put out in the first round of the Chatham Center tennis tournament to play against Don Budge. He wouldn't touch the ball often enough to practice at all!

A skilful teacher of history or geography can arouse a child's curiosity, and by restraining himself from parading his own knowledge can make it necessary for the child to read in order to satisfy himself, and by suggestion can direct him to books within his comprehension and well adapted to answering his questions. With poor readers the teacher might give the page of the reference or tell the child to bring the book to the teacher for help in finding what he wants. Ten minutes of reading to find the answer to a question raised by the child himself is worth hours of reading in formal class procedure. He wants to do the reading; it gives him a personal satisfaction and creates a better attitude toward reading in general.

ONE of the respects in which administrators and teachers overlook the wide variation in reading ability is in the selection of books for use in the classroom. By that I mean the somewhat prevalent practice of choosing only sixth-grade books for use in a sixth-grade class. Do not misunderstand me. I do believe that the use of a textbook in social studies is justifiable. It gives the class a common ground for discussion and a starting point for their reading. I believe that it simplifies the task of holding the group together and of making children responsible for certain basic subject matter in connection with the topic being studied. I am old-fashioned enough

to believe that children should occasionally be held responsible for subject matter. I have no admiration for the teacher who says smugly, "I don't teach history, I teach children." If she told the truth, she should say, "I don't teach anything." It is impossible just to teach children. You must teach them something.

Yet confining a class, even in the grades, to one book is not only an injustice in the field of social studies in that it limits knowledge, interests, and outlook in general, but it also takes no account whatever of the range in reading ability. That consideration never affects people who write advertising copy for textbooks. They assure you solemnly that this text is all you need to teach, not only well but in a manner superior to any so far attained. The authors are usually modest enough to include a list of books for supplementary reading. They realize, as we do, that there just isn't any book that good, and that there is no class of children all with identical interests and reading ability.

My theory is that the textbook should rank in difficulty slightly below the average reading ability in the grade so that as few children as possible will have difficulty with the reading. It can not be too easy or it will kill interest for pupils in the upper levels. Keeping good readers confined to a text written for the average or below average group is educational folly. It makes them lazy, deprives them of practice on their own reading level, and fails to give them the mental stimulation they need to make the subject interesting for them. A fifteen-year-old mind can not remain interested indefinitely in material written for ten-year olds. It is like feeding a child of ten entirely on cream of wheat and strained vegetables. It is also discouraging to the trailers to expect them to cope constantly with material which is too hard for them. It makes any subject into drudgery and kills most of the interest. Some balance must be struck between the needs of the best and the poorest readers in the class.

ADDITIONAL material must be provided on these various levels. How can this be done? There are many ways. For instance, the teacher can place on the library table books of various levels concerned with the topic under consideration in social studies. She may list each selection in these books on the board, telling, perhaps, just what phase of the subject is treated and whether the reading is hard or easy. She can judge the approximate difficulty of the books by comparing paragraphs from them with paragraphs from basic readers on various grade levels, watching vocabulary, sentence structure, and general maturity of treatment. It is sometimes effective to suggest to individuals selections that they might find interesting. Children should be encouraged to tell in class what they have read in other books, but reports should be required only with great discretion, particularly with poor readers and early in the term. After a period of varied reading, reports may readily be accepted as a part of school work, but it is very easy to make them something to be dreaded. Magazines, pamphlets, folders from museums, travel advertisements, and any number of other kinds of material are all useful.

If some of them are mainly pictures, don't separate them from the reading material or discount their usefulness in the problem. Pictures usually have titles anyway, and they may be just what your poorest readers need to attract them to the library table where they will find that books are friends and not enemies, as so many reading failures regard them.

READING FOR INFORMATION

AS you undoubtedly realize, there are two types of reading done in school, reading for pleasure, and reading for information, or worktype reading. That latter was "studying" when you and I went to school. In reading for pleasure we enjoy the story as we go along, we relax, and make no serious attempt to remember what we have read. That is armchair and *Saturday Evening Post*

reading. But worktype reading is primarily for the acquisition of new knowledge and for the retaining of that knowledge after it has been acquired. That is the kind of reading you did, when that last social science professor had you read the Report of the Commission with the promise of a quiz on what you had read. If our teachers had done a better job in teaching us worktype reading, we should be getting all A's on these courses instead of—whatever it was we did get.

The social studies teacher is the person who has the opportunity of really teaching children to study, or to do worktype reading, if we must be up to date. There are so many opportunities in this work to teach the specific techniques of studying, and the work will benefit so much from more efficiency in this kind of reading, that he should not let the opportunity pass. I shall mention some of these techniques which I consider important, but by no means could I hope to give a complete list, and the order in which I mention them has nothing to do with their relative importance in my or anyone else's opinion.

ONE thing that I believe we can and should teach children is the art of skimming. That is, they should realize that there are times when it is permissible, even desirable, to turn their eyes rapidly over a page until they find the information they are seeking. It is an unforgivable waste of time for anyone to have to read every word when skimming is enough to show what part of the material is helpful and what is not. Most children need to be taught how this is done. Give the class a question, the answer to which will be found on a given page and urge the children to find it as quickly as possible. Practice of this sort encourages rapid surveying of the page and establishes a habit that will be useful in any research work.

Outlining a selection in detail is, I believe, rather difficult for sixth graders. However, one can lay a firm foundation for the

future building of this technique. This can be done by giving children practice in finding the main idea of each paragraph in the chapter being read. Selecting a title for each paragraph is a good way to start. It is surprising how much work of this kind is needed even by children with high intelligence. Time spent on this technique is time well spent, as it will result in better understanding of main points in any selection and will relegate interesting details to their proper importance.

Summarizing a selection is another way of teaching children to discriminate between main and subordinate points. Occasionally they should be required to summarize what has been read. If the summaries are read aloud, the other children may discuss what important points have been left out and what unimportant details have been included. The first time a class is exposed to this treatment, it is well to select a youngster who can withstand criticism, so that injured feelings will not obstruct the path of progress.

Social studies material is very well adapted to vocabulary building. It is often a good plan to go over in class the words in a chapter that may cause difficulty for the group as a whole, particularly proper names and words used with new connotations, but I believe it is even more important to teach children to use the dictionary. It is never possible to reach the difficulties of every child in this matter of new words, and it is very boring to the child with a good vocabulary to have to listen to such explanation of words he knows perfectly well.

The new school dictionaries which have come out are so superior to the old type that one need have no fears about sending children to consult them. The definitions are in language which a child can understand. It was not ever thus. I can remember having a youngster look up the word "skill" in one of the old type dictionaries, and the definition given was "mental ability or manual dexterity," which of course made everything very clear.

One of my favorite devices in vocabulary work was suggested by a professor of reading. The system is to assign a reasonable amount of reading and to ask each child to list the unfamiliar words which he had to look up as he read. After the books are closed, the teacher puts on the board two or three groups of eight words each, selected from the reading as words that might cause difficulty. Beside each group he writes ten definitions to be matched to the words in the lists. The addition of the two extra words prevents the elimination process. After the matching tests have been corrected, the children are told to compare the words they missed on the test with the list they made as they read. The first few times this is tried, the discrepancy is amazing. The poor readers will have failed on perhaps ten words and yet have none which they looked up. They are so used to unfamiliar words that they don't realize they don't know them. By trying this occasionally, children are made more word-conscious and will make better and more frequent use of the dictionary. Building up a habit of this sort is more important than the complete understanding of every paragraph in every chapter.

REMEDIAL READING

THERE is just one more point which I wish to make, and that is that there should be some provision for remedial reading in any school program. By remedial reading, I mean attention to the child who is not doing as well as he can; I do not mean more time for the low mentality group, who, I feel, are getting more than their fair share of our time and energy anyway. Many people are scared away from remedial reading work by hearing learned discussions in seven syllable words. They hear speakers rattle on about metronoscopes, ophthalmoscopes, and tele-binoculars, and they decide that this is

all much too technical. As a matter of fact, these machines are very helpful and are of use in a clinic, but in the ordinary school situation they are too expensive, and the occasion for using them does not arise often enough to warrant their purchase.

In many cases, a little common sense will go a long way toward solving the problem. When the walls start falling in, you don't need a seismograph to tell you that there is an earthquake in the vicinity, although you might think it was only Orson Welles on the radio again. Noble and Noble have just published a little book by Helen Wilkinson and Bertha Brown called, *Improving Your Reading* (\$1.00, reviewed in November issue) which is invaluable for any teacher trying to do anything along this line. It helps you to find the cause of the difficulty and then tells you what to do about it after you have found it. It is the best work of its kind that I have seen.

This paper would never qualify as a learned discussion, I fear, but then it was not written by a very learned person. The writer is just a classroom teacher with a burning conviction that children should be taught to read and to read well. I do not wish to add to the heavy burden of the teacher of the social studies the teaching of reading mechanics. Mechanics are the foundation of reading, and they must be established firmly in order to make application possible. While it is not the duty of the history or geography teacher to supply this lack, the weight of opinion can help to give mechanics the attention they require. I do think, however, that the social studies teacher has a great responsibility as to teaching the proper application of these mechanics and can teach children to read not only efficiently but thoughtfully and with discrimination, and if there is any other skill that will do more to make them good students and well adjusted adults, I don't know what it is.

Music in Your History Class

FRANCES MARION MILLS

If one accepts the definition of history that claims as its proper field everything human beings have done, thought, and been since the beginning of written records and before, the teacher of history has an extensive and rather appalling job to perform. It means that, for each historical period studied by school children, the teacher must present as nearly complete a picture of the life of the people as he can.

Let us hope that, out of the mass of material involved in such an undertaking, there is some thread that he can handle as an authority, upon which he can speak with the certainty that comes from a reasonable amount of research. He may feel at home in the constitutional or political developments of the periods he teaches, or he may be well acquainted with the commercial ways and means of the people. Whatever the high point of his knowledge may be, though, there are inevitably areas in which he can be, not an authority, but only an interested and skillful companion on the road to learning with only enough training and experi-

We talk much these days of integration. What about music in the history classroom? A teacher in the Central High School of Valley Stream, Long Island, offers some answers that even novices in music can use. This plan for using music was worked out with the encouragement and appreciation of her superintendent when the author was teaching in the high school at LeRoy, New York.

ence to offer leadership as he and his class struggle to find out more. This should not be alarming; it should be comforting and inspiring.

It is the way in which many of us must try to bring to the attention of our students one of the most important expressions of man's doing, thinking, and being—namely, music. With such an attitude, a teacher who is not an accomplished musician, who even lacks technical training of any sort or has very little of it can enter upon some very useful experiments in bringing the history of music to his classes. With such an attitude on the part of the teacher, the student who knows more than the teacher about a subject (in this case, music) becomes an assistant instead of a source of trepidation. It will not be an easy task to be turned off in a few hours. It means some amount of study before one can venture to present even a well known subject to a class of alert youngsters. Nevertheless, the effort has been worth while in the not too extensive experience of the writer, so this article addresses itself particularly to other history teachers who love music, like to go to concerts or listen to good music by other means, and who like to try to share with their students the experiences they themselves find delightful but would not qualify as all-around authorities on music.

MUSIC AS POPULAR EXPRESSION

THE greatest claim which music has to a place in the history classroom is, as has been suggested, that the music of a period is as necessary to a complete picture of that

period as are the achievements of statesmen, scientists, and less distinguished people. Consider the important place assigned to music in the creation of suitable citizens by the ancient Greeks. And it is very illuminating to discover that the music of ancient Sparta was mainly of a martial character. It helps to complete a picture in which children's barracks and husbandless homes leave a sizeable blank. Music must have been one of the needed emotional outlets for the Spartans, and an outlet that served the purposes of the state, as well, just because it was martial. Likewise, the chamber music of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries with its delicate grace and gaiety helps to complete the picture of life at the courts of Louis XIV and Marie Antoinette, which textbooks labor, unsatisfactorily for the most part, to give. You can really "put over" quite a bit of the spirit of the French Revolution by playing a record of something by Haydn and following it promptly with the "Marseillaise." In the same way, a very up-to-date problem can be pointed up to a class trained to notice musical differences by playing "Tales from the Vienna Woods," for instance, and following it with the "Horst Wessel."

THERE are also other ways that music can be used. Some music does not belong to a period that is being studied, but it may illustrate an idea or drive home a fact concerning that period just the same. There are two selections of this kind that come quickly to mind. One is a song from *The King's Henchman* by Deems Taylor (with words by Edna St Vincent Millay), "Oh, Caesar, Great Wert Thou." The three stanzas of that song relate very briefly the achievements of Julius Caesar, Claudius, and Hadrian in ancient England, and they will help to make three distinguishing facts stick very much as "Thirty days has September" has helped most of us over our ordinary difficulties with the calendar. The words should be given to the students first in written or printed form, and then the

record should be played. Its rousing music is guaranteed to put the sleepest boy in the class on the alert once more, and, if one runs one's classes informally, the whole class will be singing along with the victrola before the record ends. At any rate few members of the class will be completely unaware of the existence of at least three great Romans when the reckoning comes later on! Furthermore, everybody will mark that day down as a red-letter day in history class and will have had a valuable musical experience into the bargain.

Another record that accomplishes a similar task is Debussy's "La Cathédrale Engloutie," for, with a short explanation beforehand, it will tell of a miracle of medieval Provence as clearly as words would and much more beautifully, so that students will feel the mystically religious spirit that was one side of the middle ages in a way they won't forget. They can hear the untroubled sea in the beginning, then the stirrings, vague at first and then more pronounced, until, with a ringing of cathedral bells, the main theme makes clear with unearthly beauty that the doomed cathedral has emerged from its grave; then slowly the whole thing reverses itself until only the quiet sea can be heard. Students have recalled that particular record after four years' time and have even been able to sketch its significance, although it was only played to them once during freshman year.

ONE warning, however, should be given. In dealing with music in this way, one must never forget that music has an integrity of its own. If it lends assistance to history's subject matter all well and good, but it must not be made to assume an inferior position itself. Students must not be so burdened with the responsibility of getting the historical facts to be remembered that the music becomes just another chore instead of the source of joy and satisfaction it ought to be. Here one stands in danger of doing to music what has been done too often to Shakespeare and Dickens.

THE more important phase of all this, though, ought to be examined here in more detail, namely, the manner of presenting the music that belongs to an historical period in such a way as to make more nearly complete the student's mental picture of the times about which he studies. Most of what follows will be limited to a discussion of the use of nineteenth century music in a class in modern European history on the high school level, but, since the field itself is not limited to that, some suggestions will be made specifically concerning the ancient, medieval, and American periods.

CHOICE OF MUSIC

WHEN the decision has been made to introduce some music into one's classes, the first thing to do is to decide just what music to use. The nineteenth century abounds in illustrious names: Beethoven, Meyerbeer, Mendelssohn, Chopin, Liszt, Schubert, Schumann, Verdi, Wagner, Bizet, Tchaikowsky, Debussy, and more. The time in a history course to be given to music can not be long enough to include them all. Turning the attention to the types of writing important during the nineteenth century will probably bring more hopeful results, because then four main types appear, and the leading exponents of each type can be chosen for study with a regretful dismissal for the rest.

These four main types are: the fully developed symphony (earlier samples should have been introduced previously along with the chamber music, oratorios, and opera of the eighteenth century); the German *lieder* or folksong and art-ballad type of writing; the "music drama" that grew out of the earlier types of opera; the impressionistic music that came late in the century and led so plainly to much of what we commonly term "modern" music today.

As soon as such a selection is made, three composers present themselves as inevitable choices; Beethoven, Richard Wagner, and Claude Debussy can not be omitted, if three of these musical types are to have any sort

of justice done them. Next Schumann, Schubert, and Liszt suggest themselves together, when one thinks of the *lieder*. These are the essential men. To the list may be added whatever other composers one may choose for one reason or another. It would seem advisable to choose one more writer of symphonies, if time permits, and to include Verdi. If there are a number of children of Italian background in the class, as is very likely in and near industrial centers, it seems downright criminal to omit Verdi. Probably it is anyway. Surely any lover of opera feels that his work should not be ignored. Such a program can be presented in two class periods, although three are better if they are only forty-five minutes long.

ON the other hand, if, instead of the nineteenth century, one is teaching the middle ages, a consideration of types of music will lead inevitably to the songs of the troubadours, minnesingers and mastersingers, and of the Gregorian chants and other church music, with the name of Palestrina looming large as the renaissance begins to revolutionize music.

Teachers of American history will want to introduce the music of the American Indians and the spirituals and secular songs of the Negro. The latter may be taught when the subject of slavery receives most of its pre-Civil War treatment, or it may be taught along with other important factors in contemporary American music, or it may be taught both times, but it certainly will come in sometime. Mention should be made in an American history class of old ballads that show the similarity between our colonial culture and that of England. Some of these ballads as given in Carl Sandburg's *American Sandbag*¹ tell the same stories as ballads that can be found in English collections such as Helen Child Sargent and George Lyman Kittredge's *English and Scottish Popular Ballads*² except for the

¹ New York: Harcourt Brace, 1927.

² Boston: Houghton, 1904.

changing of a few names and details here and there. Cowboy and hillbilly songs have their place and so does jazz. One may be a classicist and prefer to overlook such music, but it isn't fair to do that. Jazz expressed the temper of post-war America—even significantly in the work of George Gershwin—so it should have a hearing in a class where young people are trying to get an understanding of their own civilization.

To ignore it is to approach, at least, the unfortunate action of a well meaning teacher who had decided to broaden the musical experience of her students by having a study of music connected with some special theme. The class of adolescents had chosen the theme of love, but the whole rich field of operatic love music was not to be used at all, because the teacher felt that the opera was an inferior art form! Even when one of the students brought records to class of the "Liebestod" from Tristan and Isolde and other similar works, they were very unwisely deprecated by the teacher. Occasionally one must ignore one's own preferences in order to be fair; if a form of music is presented which the teacher herself does not care for but which a student in the class does care for and knows something about, it is the writer's opinion that the teacher should gracefully assume the role of student and let the interested boy or girl do the presenting with every possible assistance.

EQUIPMENT

AFTER a decision is made regarding just what shall be the subject matter, some attention must be given to equipment. In periods given over entirely to the study of music, both a good phonograph and a good piano that is in tune are called for. Almost every school has one of each either in the music room or in the auditorium, and usually arrangements can be made with the music teacher to exchange rooms for two or three days, if the suggestion is made far enough ahead of time. The phonograph, of course, is to play records on; the piano is

for either the teacher or a student to play over the themes of symphonies and operas before the records in which they appear are played.

The records will probably be a personal investment on the part of the teacher unless the school has an unusually well equipped music department or is willing to help out in the purchases, but a teacher who has a real love for the music will not regret the expense. Sometimes it is even desirable to buy a portable victrola of one's own. Having the records, one might as well be able to play them anywhere at any time. It is important to see that the machine is a good one, however, so that it will do justice to the recorded music and make the proper effect on the listeners.

A book by James L. Mursell (*The Psychology of Music*)³ published last year explains in the opening chapter based on a number of recent scientific experiments that tone by itself has the power to arouse the general conditions of emotion and that the patterns in which the tones are set determine, to some extent, the type of emotion aroused. This being so, it seems especially important that the tone should be rendered accurately and beautifully. A good test is to have the record of "Ho-yo-to-ho" from Die Walküre as sung by Kirsten Flagstad played. If the phonograph does justice to that artist's incomparable voice without setting the inner machinery to jangling, it is probably a good purchase!

METHOD OF EXPLANATION

WHEN choosing which records to play, the experience and tastes of the class itself are a prime consideration. As far as possible, music that will appeal to the students most strongly, as well as illustrate the points to be brought out, is the music that should be selected. If the class has quite a bit of musical background, music that is not so well known is probably a better choice for most of the program than well

³ New York: Norton, 1937.

known works, although it is a good thing to remember that some provision ought to be made for the joy that comes with recognition of an old favorite and that the great music of the world wears well anyhow, so that repetition is not at all a bad thing.

For a class that has comparatively little musical background, a satisfactory choice might be Beethoven's "Symphony No. 5" and Cesar Franck's "D Minor Symphony," Schubert's "Erlkönig," "Die Lorelei" by Liszt, Schumann's "Ich Grolle Nicht," Verdi's "Aïda," Wagner's "Walküre," and Debussy's "Cathédrale Engloutie" (two sides of a twelve-inch record). Remembering that it takes three minutes to play one side of a twelve-inch record and that some time, probably fifteen minutes a period, is needed for explanation, a selection of records from the above list can then be made.

In most cases, it is probably best to choose records on which prominent living artists are the performers in order to encourage an interest in living musicians who can be heard by interested students on the concert stage or over the radio. Besides, pictures of living artists and composers are easily obtained to relieve the cartoons about the Nazis and the New Deal on the bulletin board! Exceptions to the rule occur. Many Italian children have heard of Caruso and are enthusiastic admirers, whether they have ever heard his voice or not. For this reason, the record of "Celeste Aïda" sung by him may be preferable to any other, if a number of Italian children are in the class.

THE time for explanation can be reduced to a minimum by previously assigned outside reading to familiarize students with personalities of composers and the stories of the operas to be discussed. In addition, one may choose to play only one movement of one of the symphonies, though, in that case, the other should be played all the way through to illustrate how the form is worked out, the form itself having been briefly explained by the teacher beforehand. For the teacher's assistance, there is a very clear ex-

planation of the sonata form of symphony in the explanatory preface of Percy Goetschius' Analytic Symphony Series No. 3 (a piano score for Beethoven's "Fifth Symphony").

CERTAINLY it is not recommended that the whole of even one act be played, in dealing with the opera. Much of the effectiveness of recitatives in opera depends upon what can be seen on the stage. For class purposes, certain parts should be selected. From Aïda, "Celeste Aïda" is a good tenor aria that children of high school age like, and "Ritorna Vincitor" is an equally good soprano aria—or "O Patria Mia." It seems that vocal solos or duets or choruses ought to be chosen in preference to orchestral passages like the triumphal march from Aïda, because the former group is more the "stuff" of opera.

From Die Walküre, the writer's own choice has been the soprano aria "Die Männer Sippe," Siegmund's love song beginning "Winterstürme wichen dem Wonnemond," the "Ride of the Valkyries" which is an overture to Act III, Brünnhilde's song to Sieglinde in which she gives to the latter Siegmund's broken sword, and Wotan's "Farewell to Brünnhilde." Each of these was chosen for a special purpose. The first illustrates Wagner's use of the leitmotif, or leading theme. At the point where Sieglinde sings of an unknown visitor to her wedding feast, the audience discovers that the guest was the god Wotan because the orchestra—not Sieglinde—gives out the Valhalla motive. Siegmund's love song is chosen because its beauty gives children pleasure. It need not be analyzed or commented upon but just enjoyed. The "Ride of the Valkyries" is a well known piece with which any cultured person should be acquainted and which will arouse the class out of a possible nostalgia into which it may have fallen during the love song! The record which plays Brünnhilde's song illustrates the use of a motive which belongs, not to Die Walküre at all, but to the next opera

in the Ring, for, when the Valkyr tells Sieglinde that she is to be the mother of a hero, the theme of the hero Siegfried appears in both the orchestral and vocal parts.

The last selection on the list contains a veritable gold mine of the principal motives of the opera in addition to being superb music: a suggestion of the magic fire, the Siegfried motive again, the theme of the love of the Walsungs, the slumber motive, the parting kiss motive, that of death or fate (in which only three notes carry a world of meaning), the renunciation motive and the magic ban—in that order. A carefully prepared class will take pleasure in recognizing these in addition to the ordinary enjoyment of the music.

A LARGE part of the successful preparation of a class for the music depends upon some pretty arduous work on the part of the teacher with the assistance of any interested students, because most of it consists in getting together dittoed or mimeographed material for the class. Such material should contain the notes for the themes of the symphonies labelled to show just what each theme is, and where it fits into the pattern. Use of the scores in the Goetschius Analytic Symphony Series will give all that one needs for that, because those scores are labelled. All the motives for which students should listen during the playing of operatic music should be put down in the same way. They too should be copied from a score, but it will probably be necessary to look at the notations in Ernest Newman's *Stories of the Great Operas*⁵ to help identify them accurately, unless one is so well acquainted with the motives that one can depend upon one's own ability to recognize them in the score.

Words should accompany the opera notations to help the students to keep track of what is going on. And it is just as well to include the words of long arias like "Ritorna Vincitor"—but not the music! The

words of whatever *lieder* are played should go on the sheets too—in both English and German if any of the students read German and the teacher's energy holds out.*

The notation on the sheets ought to be full enough so that when it is played on the piano it will make sense; that is, it should have a base as well as a treble and enough chords to make it sound right. Get the Goetschius Analytic Symphony Series, No. 10 (Cesar Franck's D Minor) and play the principal theme of the second movement with its harmonization as the editor has written it. Then play the theme with just one finger, and you'll see what is meant. It is like a simple subject with no predicate and no modifiers. For that reason, many of the opera notations in Newman's book referred to above are not entirely adequate.

WHEN the class period arrives, these same sheets can be used by the teacher or a pupil in playing the themes for which the class is to listen during the playing of records, but the most important thing about them is that each child can have a set to keep so that he can play over the music after he has gone, if he wants to refresh his memory. For the sake of those who can play only with one finger or who want to hum the tunes, it is well to mark the necessary single notes with red.

STANDARDS

IT may be just as well to have some slight check-up on what has been learned in order to see that students do listen actively instead of passively. For such a purpose, the teacher should decide what the bare essentials of common knowledge are and test on them with as little "schoolishness" as possible.

* For my own use with nineteenth-century music in senior high school classes, I have made eleven sheets of musical notation of themes and three typed sheets of words to accompany songs. Good work might be done with less; the first sheets I ever offered my students were only three in number, but the enthusiasm grows with the doing until one gradually undertakes a little more and then a little more. It is just as well, no doubt, not to start with too much.

⁵ 3 vols. New York: Knopf, 1929-30.

sible, for it should not be forgotten that, for most of us at least, the principal mission of music is to give pleasure and that the pleasure should not be killed by exacting requirements on the part of the teacher. Students might be expected to know the usual number of movements in a symphony, and they should know what a theme is and some of the ways in which Beethoven enriched the symphony. They ought to be able to explain the main difference between the operas of the eighteenth century and the music dramas of the nineteenth. Students of American history ought to know that the Indians did not employ harmony or part singing, and that they often used one rhythm in the accompaniment together with a quite different rhythm in the vocalization of a single song. They should have a reasonably clear idea of the connection between Negro music and jazz, and they ought to have a speaking acquaintance with some of the leading musical problems of America and the names of the artists attempting to solve them.

THE further back in history we go, the greater become the difficulties, for most students—and teachers too probably—will fail to understand the music of the middle ages, let alone that of classical times. Our scale, as we know it, was not used until after the tenth century and notation scarcely began to be accurate until after the fourteenth century. Instruments differed. Our only truly ancient familiar seems to be the octave, for the discovery of which in the sixth century B.C. Pythagoras has the credit. There are records purporting to show the type of music that the ancients made. The most easily accessible that the writer has been able to discover is the *Two Thousand Years of Music Series* edited by Professor Curt Sachs. In addition to including a wealth of medieval material containing a Gregorian chant among other things, this series has a record devoted on two sides to ancient Greek music and another for ancient Hebrew song. The regular price, however, is

eighteen dollars for the twelve ten-inch records at the Gramophone Shop in New York (18 East 48th Street), so one would almost have to enlist the purchasing assistance of the school. High school classes in early European history might be interested in hearing some of these, particularly if they have had a little harmony so that they can understand the technical composition of the music or if the teacher is able to explain it with both knowledge and enthusiasm.

OTHER POSSIBILITIES

ONE possibility open to the teacher of American history remains to be discussed, in addition, of course, to the rather obvious ones of making a pilgrimage to see a broadcast made by some great American musician like Walter Damrosch or listening over the radio to periodic all-American programs when they occur. In making a study of the local history of a community, there is often an unusual opportunity.

Potter County in Pennsylvania offers a good example. About forty miles from the city of Williamsport is a state park named for a Norwegian violinist, Ole Bull, who came to this country around the middle of the last century. Like most of the state parks, this one offers plenty of stone stoves for outdoor cooking, tables and a swimming pool made by the CCC boys, who dammed up a stream and improved the banks. It is the kind of place that a picnic-wise class could enjoy with safety under the care of their history teacher and is within driving distance of a number of places of which Williamsport and Elmira, New York, are probably the largest. To make it easier, the place is marked on Texaco road maps. What is important for our present purpose is that it is the site of an attempt made by Ole Bull to establish an artistic colony and scientific center to which he hoped to attract the leading men of Europe. He also wanted to establish a practical military school there to rival West Point which had become, according to a contemporary writer's view, "an

exclusive and aristocratical institution."¹

Here, in northern Pennsylvania, Ole Bull began the construction of a "castle" as a center for his colony, but, with his plans apparently in sight of fulfilment, he discovered that he did not have and could not get a clear title to the land, so the colony failed. Visitors today walk up a woody path that twists around a little knoll on the top of which they can see the cellar and foundations of the old castle of Ole Bull—in addition to a magnificent panorama of the surrounding forest land! Some study of the life of this old Norwegian, who offered a thousand dollar prize for the best "original grand opera by an American composer, upon a strictly American subject," would illustrate a great many points regarding the dilemma of American music in the middle of the nineteenth century and regarding a number of other dilemmas of the times, too. One of Ole Bull's own compositions, "The Herd Girl's Sunday," is available on a Victor record. All this might lead to a pleasant Saturday in the Pennsylvania woods, where at least one of those immigrants who have contributed to the enrichment of our culture could be made to come to life to some extent for young Americans of today.

Probably there are equal opportunities in other parts of the country—or even better ones. After all, of course it takes a little imagination to make something out of Ole Bull's cellar, but it would take only a little enthusiasm to interest the children of Massachusetts in the problem of American summer music festivals by calling attention to the development of the Stockbridge festivals and recommending attendance at them if possible. It is not an unworthy aim for the history teacher to try to encourage her students to become concert-goers just as she tries to make daily newspaper readers of them.

Of course, the history teacher must remember that her emphasis should be on the

¹ From Dwight's "Journal of Music" quoted in J. T. Howard, *Our American Music: Three Hundred Years of It*. New York: Crowell, 1931, p. 205.

part that music plays in the growth of civilization and the way in which it expresses the best thought of its time, but this can scarcely be done without teaching some appreciation of music as an art and encouraging a growing concern with it. The junior high school teacher has students whose adult emotional reactions are just beginning to unfold and whose response to music must therefore be especially keen, if we are to believe Professor Mursell's theory referred to above. Yet, in the junior high school is just where the work in music appreciation usually begins to go by the board owing to the presentation of elective subjects and the growing interest of many school music teachers in training successful competitors for band and orchestra prizes. All this tends to restrict the ordinary student's chance for continued training. The history teacher who makes the effort may be able to keep alive a flame that was kindled by the elementary school teacher who had the time and the opportunity to reach all of the children. If, on the other hand, the students are receiving the benefits of splendid musical training such as many well equipped schools do give, she may reinforce and supplement that training by her own interest, her recognition of its importance, and her own ingenuity which will discover, it is hoped, many new ways—more and better than those suggested here—to show its historical significance.

Two books not mentioned in the text but uniquely helpful to teachers are Bernard Shaw, *Perfect Wagnerite* (New York: Brentano, 1909) which interprets *The Ring of the Nibelung* in the light of Wagner's experiences in the 1848 revolutions, and Sigmund Spaeth, *Stories Behind the World's Great Music* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1937) which gives the "human interest stories," as the title suggests, from Bach to the present in America. For general inspiration of both students and teachers, it would be difficult to find a more wise and genuine book than Deems Taylor's *Of Men and Music* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1937). See also Ernest Newman's *Fact and Fiction About Wagner* (London: Cassell, 1931) and *Life of Richard Wagner* (New York: Knopf, 1937-) and Daniel Gregory Mason's *Dilemma of American Music* (New York: Macmillan, 1928).

Teacher, Society, and Current Events

REUBEN R. PALM

THE teaching of current events is so important and so rich in possibilities that it can no longer be left to the whim of individual teachers. Cooperative effort is needed by teachers, supervisors, curriculum makers, administrators, boards of education, and teacher-training institutions. The necessity for this has been argued over and over again, and it is generally conceded, but, nevertheless, there is a good deal to be done in coming to a general agreement concerning desirable and workable procedures, adopting them, and practising them.

One of the most searching investigations concerning methods of teaching current events was made through personal interviews of twenty-eight teachers who taught current events in connection with social studies courses.¹ Although this article can not here describe those methods and procedures, many of them serve as the basis upon which the following suggestions and recommendations for current events teaching are made.

¹Della G. Fancier and C. C. Crawford, "Methods of Teaching Current Events in High School," *Historical Outlook*, December, 1928.

The importance of teaching current events has been stressed over and over again, but the practical application of the theories remains a problem. Here an instructor in education in the Eastern Oregon Normal School at La Grande discusses his experience in methods of application.

CURRENT events should be taught incidentally by all teachers in so far as certain current happenings apply to the subjects taught. However, the social studies are so rich in opportunities for introducing current events that two procedures should be followed to make sure that they are not neglected. First, in day to day lesson planning every teacher should ask himself the question of what is now happening in the community, state, nation, or world, that bears a relation to the lesson of tomorrow. Then next day's teaching should be planned so that the more formal subject matter will have additional significance because it ties up with current happenings. Second, it must be recognized that certain contemporary events do not directly relate to the topics in day to day teaching of such subjects as history, geography, civics, economics, and sociology, so one day a week should be set aside for their discussion. My own practice has seemed to indicate that Monday is best because it encourages weekend preparation.

IN social studies classes a current events text should be used, and it can be supplemented by articles from periodicals chosen because they are well written and interesting as well as pertinent. Except for the upper years of high school, newspapers and periodicals intended mainly for adult use seem to me to be written in language too difficult for children to understand easily. A number of current events news sheets and magazines for school use are available at low cost.

FIRST assignments should be made with a view of arousing popular interest in current events. Students should be permitted considerable freedom in selection of topics, but in order to discourage selection of too easy or too short articles they should be required to show why the topic is important. A problem like the race question, unemployment, the Supreme Court, may serve for a term or a semester as a core around which to maintain interest, or several of these may be used at one time. Some teachers report that arrangements which encourage students to exchange current events materials serve as a means of socializing current events teaching. A student-maintained current events bulletin board with points awarded for contributions have been found by some teachers to be a very stimulating device.

Various other devices are often helpful: occasional debates on issues of current importance, having a student chairman or committee to assign reports and handle discussion, division of the class into two sides and awarding points for the best answers to current events questions, and current events scrapbooks for extra credit. To stimulate pupils to make good oral reports some teachers grade pupils upon their ability to hold the attention of their audience. A few teachers report that using the radio during the class hour to get news of the day serves to arouse interest and in some of the larger schools the use of movie newsreel strips is reported to be successful.

PERHAPS one reason why the National Council for the Social Studies investigation² found so few teachers teaching current events was that in the majority of schools teachers and pupils must pay all or some of the costs of texts and materials. Administrative officials should see that boards of education appropriate funds for the necessary current events texts and periodicals.

²*Social Studies*, April, 1936.

Another problem reported by most teachers is the difficulty of ascertaining facts on local issues and events. No solution to the problem is suggested. Perhaps, however, one cause is that most teachers are not close enough to everyday happenings. Teachers must get out and make more active contacts with their communities through membership in various organizations and service in behalf of civic projects. Another obstacle is the teacher's lack of protection when vested interests are exposed in the current events discussion. Teachers associations need to work for the strengthening of tenure rights, and administrators need to defend teachers against such attacks.

Many teachers confess that they lack the training necessary for understanding current issues. The teaching of current events and their interpretation requires broad training in economics, political science, history, sociology, geography, and literature. Few teacher-training institutions have broad enough major teaching fields. Teachers also report that they lack the time to keep up on current events. For a long time it has been generally recognized that the English teacher's work of preparation, theme correcting, and so forth requires much time. Consequently many administrators assign fewer periods of teaching and fewer pupils to English teachers. Administrators need to recognize that teaching loads must be lessened so all teachers will have time in which to read about contemporary affairs extensively.

CURRICULUM makers need to incorporate into courses of study adequate instructions and suggestions for the teaching of current events, and to take into consideration the time needed for teaching of current events. Only by systematic planning can provision be made so that the requirements of subject-matter teaching do not infringe on the time needed for the proper treatment of current events.

Humanizing Economics

HAROLD S. SLOAN

OF the millions of dollars which American foundations pour out annually on behalf of education, few have thus far gone to aid the harassed high school teacher of economics. Now, however, a newcomer among the large educational endowments is looking his way. The two-year-old Alfred P. Sloan Foundation has among its objectives the definite aim of strengthening the teacher's hand: of providing him with new ways of making the "dismal science" more attractive and understandable to his young charges.

Endowed with a ten-million-dollar fund by the motor-car magnate whose name it bears, the Foundation has as its whole present purpose "the increase and diffusion of economic knowledge." One way in which it plans to work is by helping our adolescents to see more vividly the significance and the relationships of the "getting and spending" which will take up the major part of their later individual and collective lives. By making the new generation economically more literate than their forebears, the Foundation hopes, in short, to have a modest share in helping them avoid some of the mistakes in personal and national affairs that have plagued us in the past.

This statement of the program of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation is one of a series of articles on the programs of organizations active in educational work. Mr Sloan is director of the Foundation.

So far it sees three clear roads toward this goal. The first is by bringing into the classroom "economics in modern dress"—matters touching the students' own present economic interest, in the lively guise of motion pictures, radio programs, and pamphlets. Another, on the contrary, is by helping to take pupils out of the classroom: to show how they can best study at first hand large-scale present-day economic enterprises in action, from mines and mills to mints and markets. A third is by influencing teacher-training institutions to broaden their students' outlook by making similar field studies an essential part of their course.

All three objects the Foundation expects to further by making grants to schools and colleges for experiments along these lines. The Foundation is not itself an "operating" agency. It merely aids accredited educational institutions to work out improved types of economics teaching, which, if successful, may serve as patterns throughout the country.

ALREADY, for example, a tour made with Foundation aid by a group of students from a single school—the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University—has yielded the first exact measurements of the benefits of first hand study. The results may influence social studies teachers widely to reconsider their methods. At any rate, now for the first time they have evidence through carefully validated tests that travel can be a more powerful teacher than books. The ten-day tour of West Virginia

coal fields made by the Lincoln School sixteen-year-olds brought about more than two years' growth in the consistency and liberality of their thinking on social issues, according to tests given and scored before and after the trip by the evaluation staff of the Progressive Education Association's Commission on the Relationship of Secondary Schools and Colleges, under the direction of Dr Louis Rath of Ohio State University.

The tour itself, which was one of three financed for the Lincoln School by a \$9,000 grant from the Foundation, was carefully arranged to demonstrate how thoroughgoing a study high school pupils can make of industrial conditions. The students visited various types of coal mines, went into miners' homes, and picnicked with miners' children. They talked with mine owners and operators, with engineers, with union officials (including John L. Lewis) and with staff members of the National Bituminous Coal Commission in Washington. They spent a day in a steel rolling mill near Pittsburgh.

The pupils were of every degree of intellectual capacity, from the highest to the lowest in the class. They came from varied social, economic, and cultural backgrounds and had diverse interests. They prepared for the trip by reading and discussion and followed it up with a month of comparing reports, records, and exhibits.

AFTER the tour this heterogeneous group showed a median gain of 15 points in consistency of thinking on six major social issues: democracy, labor and unemployment, race, nationalism, militarism, and government regulation and control. The tests on which the pupils were scored consisted of ninety-three pairs of conflicting statements on these subjects. A person could not consistently agree with both statements of a pair. Every time a student inadvertently did so, as he met the items scattered about throughout the tests, an inconsistency was marked on his record.

For example, two statements which conflict are: "Industry and business should be free to sell any kind or quality of product for which there is public demand," and "The public should be entitled to protection from harmful and worthless goods through a rigorous government inspection of the manufacture and sale of goods."

Before starting on their trip the pupils' median score showed only 60 per cent of consistency on such social issues. After their contact with industrial conditions, the consistency of their thinking had improved to 75 per cent. Yet a corresponding group of their classmates, who had remained at home to study from books, registered only 57 per cent consistency in social beliefs—very near the score the travel group had had before leaving.

In general, apparently, in the face of first hand contact with industrial problems, the travel students' inconsistent and uncertain thinking yielded to a more positive and thoroughgoing liberal attitude. To a much greater degree than before the trip, the travel students indicated agreement with the statements which the testers rated in the "liberal" category. So interpreted were statements affirming "a concern for human welfare, a tolerance of racial equality, a defense of certain democratic rights and procedures, and a rejection of social generalizations which were too wide in scope or too arbitrary in their application." The opposite viewpoint was denominated as "conservative."

Meantime, these students' stay-at-home colleagues with only books as their guides registered in May a far lower degree of liberalism—comparable with that which the travel students had scored before the trip.

THE two other field-study tours made by Lincoln pupils last year with Foundation aid took a younger and an older group far from their city homes to live among people with completely different surroundings, means of livelihood, and economic problems. Seventeen-year-olds of the twelfth

grade on a visit to the subsistence farming region of the South put on their overalls and in a few days of hard spade and carpenter work remodeled a Georgia backwoods cottage and cleared, terraced, planted, and fenced part of its land. Especially interested in power developments, they also visited the dam and plant of the Tennessee Valley Authority and later compared it with those of a private power company. Similarly, boys and girls of the ninth grade lived for a week in various farm families in a primitive New England settlement, taking part in the regular "chores," from sawing wood to killing the pig. Though the outcomes of these study projects were not so exactly measured as were those of the eleventh-grade trip, the experiences themselves were intended to suggest to schools generally new ways of making economic facts vivid to their pupils.

CHILDREN, however, can not properly be taught to make first hand observations of farm and factory, if teachers have only textbook knowledge. To show what might be done in the course of professional training to make the teacher a life-educated as well as a book-educated person, the Foundation last summer aided the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair to take some of its students and a number of public school teachers on a transcontinental bus tour. The course, for which full academic credit was given, covered 12,000 miles of United States terrain and introduced the teachers to the whole range of American agriculture and industry from the smoking chimneys of Pittsburgh to the grapefruit groves of California.

All of these student and teacher trips, to be sure, were somewhat expensive and spectacular. On that very account, however, they called public attention more sharply to the subject of travel study. In a sense they acted as a prod to other schools and other communities to ask themselves: "If it is worth while for these student groups to spend so much time, money, and planning to come face to face with economic realities

in this country, what could we do at low cost using our own school bus nearer home?"

BESIDES piquing students' interest by allowing them to share, temporarily at least, the economic experiences of others, the Foundation is also aiding a type of economics teaching which helps them more immediately to understand their own experience. Every high school pupil is here and now a consumer. He or someone for him has to make daily choices in the purchase of food, clothes, entertainment, transportation, etc.

Girls are eager to learn what qualities one should take into consideration in purchasing a lipstick or an evening gown. Boys want to know what are the advantages and disadvantages of buying a radio, or maybe an automobile, on the instalment plan. It intrigues both to know what are the general consequences when they choose, for instance, to trade with the local merchant instead of the chain store or to buy a coat made of British rather than American woolen. This, in short, is the economics that begins at home but is capable of leading one on around the world and through the most abstract ramifications of the subject.

BEARING in mind this personal interest of young people in purchasing, the Foundation aided in establishing last Fall a national Institute for Consumer Education with a special building and library of its own at Stephens College, a junior college of thirteen hundred girls at Columbia, Missouri. Beginning with a college course in consumer problems and a clinic to help girls in their budgeting and buying, the Institute expects ultimately to act as a kind of service center to help high schools in revising and setting up courses for younger pupils.

First a survey will be made of the work now being done in consumer education by the high schools of the country. Then pam-

phlets on special subjects and eventually probably a textbook and radio programs will be developed for their use. Schools in several strategic centers will be asked to try out and modify the pamphlets as they are issued. And short time fellowships may be given to high school teachers interested in spending some weeks at the Institute observing its work and consulting with its officers.

ALREADY other institutions aided by Foundation funds are publishing pamphlets and giving radio broadcasts on current economic questions of general interest both to the high school social studies teacher and to his classes. One of these is the Public Affairs Committee of New York, which brings out once a month or more a popular, readable digest of some recent economic investigation, such as *Your Income and Mine* and *Youth in the World Today*. Farther west at the University of Chicago, the Foundation is aiding the Round Table of the Air, a weekly nationwide broadcast in which during the Sunday noon hour university professors and visiting statesmen discuss before some 1,600,000 listeners economic phases of national and international questions. "The Economics of the New Deal" and "The War in China" have been some recent ones. Of all these talks, too, transcripts are available in pamphlet form.

MOST ambitious of all the Foundation's plans for translating "dry," abstract economics into human terms near to the high school pupils' own experience is perhaps that for promoting the making of a series of entertaining motion pictures on live social problems. In lifelike drama on the classroom screen the Foundation hopes ultimately to help produce films posing such questions as those raised by the displacement of men by machines in industry

and by American policies in foreign trade. With each picture will be issued to the teacher discussion outlines and bibliographies, by means of which he may guide his youngsters' thinking in the free-for-all "film forum" after the showing.

For the past half year the Foundation has been investigating the possibilities of such motion pictures and has been working on an experimental film on men and machines. Soon, if the prognosis is favorable, it will provide some educational agency with funds to carry on the work on a continuing basis.

TO be sure, the Foundation has other interests than those in the high school teacher and student. At the moment it is sponsoring two projects wholly in the university field. One of these at the University of Denver involves the granting of fellowships to ten college graduates who last Fall started to prepare themselves for a new profession, that of appraiser of the efficiency of city, town, and county governments. In an eighteen-month course at the university they will win the new degree of "Master of Science in Government Management" and qualify as expert aids to citizen groups desirous of investigating the expenditure of local taxes. Again at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology young executives whose previous training has been in engineering are studying social and economic problems on Alfred P. Sloan Foundation fellowships in an effort better to prepare themselves for industrial leadership.

These two projects are for the minority whose skilled investigations and whose decisions are capable of affecting profoundly the general welfare. But the great bulk of the enterprises in which the Foundation is interested is now, and will continue to be, directed primarily toward the average citizen and his boys and girls in the public schools.

Club Activity as Training for Democracy

GLENN W. MOON

"I AM worried about the teachers in the high school," declared a member of our board of education during a recent conversation concerning educational problems. "Do they really believe and teach the fundamentals of democracy, or have they become influenced by this never-ending rain of communist propaganda? What do you think about it?"

During the past ten years probably every American teacher, directly or indirectly, has been faced with this question.¹ Few have had to give a personal answer such as I was compelled to give, yet all have felt the steady pressure of a skeptical and conservative public whose anxiety to perpetuate the gains of the past has sometimes deadened perception of the ways and means by which, from time immemorial, valuable improvements have been brought about. Furthermore, independent and original thought is often confused with radical thought and thus, with little reason, laymen become restless.

My answer to the question quoted above

¹ For one of the newest and ablest discussions of the whole question of "Freedom of Inquiry and Expression" see the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* for November, 1938, edited by Edward P. Cheyney.

A teacher of the social studies in the high school at Stamford, Connecticut, discusses a school history club as providing present democratic experience and, likewise, training for future democratic experience.

is of no consequence here, but it reassured my questioner and restored her confidence in the school. As she left she handed me a pamphlet called *The Red Hand in the Professor's Glove*, which undoubtedly had stimulated her fear by building up the erroneous notion, from a few isolated cases, that communism saturates our American school system. Everywhere today the schools are being forced to assume responsibility for the infiltration of antidemocratic ideas regardless of whether they emanate from the extreme right or the extreme left.

FIRST, let us consider so-called dangers from the left. Early in 1938 the state legislature of Kansas planned an investigation into alleged communist activities in Kansas schools, charging specifically that some professors in the colleges of Kansas were organizing and attending communist meetings. In New York City both teachers and public have long been concerned by reports of public school teachers advocating communism and using school children for dissemination of "red" propaganda. Some of the teachers themselves have been disturbed over the question of their effectiveness in passing on the ideals of democracy to the young people of New York.

A widespread suspicion of "Anti-American" activity in our schools has led to numerous attempts to control by law the actions and attitudes of American teachers. Those supporting such legislation apparently believe that democratic institutions may be protected thereby. Over twenty states demand from teachers an oath of

loyalty. Eighteen states make flag saluting compulsory for pupils. In Delaware, for example, schools must open each morning with a flag salute and the oath of allegiance, while in Oklahoma any teacher violating the flag ceremonial law is liable to a fine of \$10 to \$500.

The opposite view, however, is taken by the John Dewey Society in its *Second Year-book* on "Educational Freedom and Democracy."² The authors maintain that general curtailment of the teacher's freedom to teach is increasing, and that these regulations and restrictions which others contend must be imposed to preserve democracy are in fact, within our school system, the most powerful American enemy of democracy. Educational freedom will make political freedom possible, they insist, but political freedom and democracy can not arise from an enslaved educational system. Law or no law, the temper of hundreds of communities is such that to discuss thoroughly in the classroom topics like communism, life in Russia, labor unions, government ownership of industry, or socialism immediately produces an occupational hazard that most teachers are unwilling to face.

APPROACHING from the right, let us notice another group that believes our schools endanger democracy. No one has ever publicly accused Mayor Hague of Jersey City of radicalism. Obviously he represents the conservative wing of American thinking and by some is considered an enemy of freedom and democracy. Yet the schools are also to blame for him, if we are to agree with Dr Frank Kingdon, president of the University of Newark, who was quoted in the public press as saying that Mayor Hague "has been reelected for twenty years, and the people who reelect him are people who come out of the American public school. The problem of the educator is not to denounce Mayor Hague. The

problem is to inquire why it is possible to go to the public schools and tolerate the sort of things that exist in Jersey City. It is time for you educators to retire into your closets and inquire what is wrong with the school system."

Can our school system be responsible for the promulgation, at one and the same time, of radicalism and of conservatism? Perhaps. The fact that Mayor Hague of Jersey City and Socialist Mayor McLevy of Bridgeport, Connecticut, were elected by Americans in America under our democratic constitution possibly supplies proof enough that our school system has, to say the least, helped to maintain a social order in the climate of which all shades of opinion may flourish. Is this not what democracy really means?

WHILE the controversy rages, while schools are constantly being charged with responsibility for our political thought, both radical and conservative, thousands of patriotic American teachers every hour of every day in every school year are practising and promoting the known virtues and values of the democratic way. May I offer here, then, one example to reassure those whose intense patriotism tends to obscure or obliterate the obvious, or whose faith in our educational system, after being bombarded from left and right by doubt, has weakened, or whose questioning minds need concrete evidence to support the thesis that our schools are properly performing their functions in democratic America.

CLUB ORGANIZATION

AS a teacher of American history in a large city high school, I had long believed that some practical application of the theoretical principles of democracy as set forth in textbook and classroom was imperative. Further, it seemed that a history club made up of superior students with a sincere interest in the problems of democracy would offer the most suitable avenue over which the problem of providing real

²Ed by Harold E. Albery and Boyd H. Bode. New York: Appleton Century, 1938.

and concrete experiences might be approached. Every teacher of experience is well aware, however, that the operation of a club out of regular school hours, and for which no graduation credit is given, presents innumerable problems. Hence, while feeling the need and appropriateness of such a club, I steadfastly refused to make the suggestion myself, preferring to wait until the pupils themselves might be stimulated to make the first move.

About six years ago my patience was rewarded. One afternoon after the regular school session four boys, all members of my American history classes, walked into my room and asked me to act as sponsor of a history club. They explained that after discussion among themselves they had come to the conclusion that such a club was needed and had decided to form one if the idea met with my approval. Controlling my elation as well as possible I suggested that they do one thing before making definite plans: namely, survey the school to determine how many other juniors and seniors showed interest. And then, if fifteen or more were found, we should form an organization.

THE details involved in our preliminary organization work are not of concern to us here, but the reasons for such a club, as set forth by these young students, and their general philosophy for governing its policies, which they worked out independently, will throw some light upon the problem raised in this article.

First, they emphasized the fact that they were not impressed by numbers. Membership must be limited to those whose concern for history and the problems of government was greater than the usual reasons of sociability or popularity. In the club's constitution, therefore, we find, "Seniors and Juniors may become members of this club providing they have a true, honest, and sincere interest in the club's work."

Next, they insisted that a constitution was an absolute necessity. Since many such clubs

have died early deaths, killed while struggling over a constitution that, even if the club survived, would probably not be followed, I questioned the wisdom of a constitution or its necessity. Knowing what they wanted, they insisted. Likewise, knowing what I wanted, I was willing to take the risk and acquiesced. In the passing years we have developed a respect for our constitution and its amendments. We follow it or change it to meet present needs. New members are required to familiarize themselves with its provisions. Is this not practising the philosophy of government by law?

The third point that gave concern to the founders was the matter of attendance. Sporadic, desultory, and haphazard attendance characterized most of the clubs with which they were familiar. If the interest demanded by the founders was to be translated into effective membership, regular attendance was necessary. Consequently in the minutes of one of the first meetings we find a record of a vote that "members shall be expelled if, having no valid reason for doing so, they do not attend two consecutive meetings." Thus the founders laid a firm, sound basis for a successful club. Today after six years their judgment still controls the club's policy.

OUR schools, if they train for effective citizenship, must provide elements similar to those likely to be experienced by adult citizens. To train *for* democratic living, we must train *in* democratic living. We must create situations and conditions that offer the opportunity for such experiences. This any good history club can do, and the following are examples of what our club has done.

Orderly and parliamentary procedure has at all times been required and maintained by the club, and each year the first meetings are devoted to the study of parliamentary law. The president must of course make himself especially well informed, and must cultivate skill and force in presiding, but one member of the club is appointed as a

parliamentary expert to settle all disputed questions of procedure and to maintain a watch for errors. Obviously, orderly procedure according to established rules is the foundation stone of all good government.

Since there can be no training in the democratic way in an autocratically operated institution, the teacher has tried to keep in the background. The officers have had complete control over programs and policies, and the advisor's position is limited to that of an advisor.

TO sell history as a school subject to students we, as teachers, point out upon every opportunity the fact that history has material value in preparing them to become effective citizens. We explain that the past lives in the present, is part of it, and operates ceaselessly to mold, control, and improve it. Hence, the so-called dead past must be a myth, for just as a boy looks and acts like his mother because his mother is an inseparable part of his being, so the present looks and acts like the past because the past is an irremovable part of the present. How then can the past be dead, and how can we understand, appreciate, evaluate, or interpret or modify the present without a knowledge of that past?

Our club has attempted to give concrete reality to these pedagogical abstractions. In so doing we have perpetuated a set of club traditions that each year have helped us to carry on our program. They have also strikingly shown how the past may be used to assist in the approach to present problems. Let one example illustrate the point. Over a period of years we have developed the tradition that no officer of the club shall accept an office unless he first resolves, if not prevented by serious illness, to be present at every meeting. This custom, its operation, and the reason for its continuance is always carefully explained by the advisor at the first meeting of the year in the hope that the successful past will continue to operate in favor of a successful present. Consciously each new set of officers carries on the tradi-

tion. On many occasions, although obviously indisposed, an officer has appeared in school on days when meetings were scheduled. When asked why, the invariable answer is, "I didn't want to break the tradition." Such a situation is, for obvious reasons, not to be encouraged, but it nevertheless illustrates the force of our emphasis upon the past.

WE have here, then, a simple example of the influence of the past over us as individuals. Is it not reasonable to assume that if pupils can be taught to estimate properly the value of following the simple traditions and customs of a club that they can be led to respect the respectable in our national past and to do their part in perpetuating it? Are they not now more ready to approach the practical possibility of creating within themselves respect for the old sacrifices that produced our democratic system with its written constitution and its historic emphasis upon individual freedom?

CLUB PROGRAM

PRESENTED by pupils, teachers, and outside speakers, our programs cover such topics as parliamentary law, the Far East, problem of the third term, student government, labor troubles, local government, and historical movies. Some of our speakers have been men of national reputation. Among the most popular of our recent speakers have been Owen Lovejoy, Stanley High, Upton Close, and Alfred N. Phillips. No controversial topic is avoided, but extreme care is taken to present as complete a factual treatment as possible so that the student may be unhampered in his formation of independent judgments. Here we practise the principle of complete freedom of speech, and here, concretely, young minds must be impressed with its soundness, reasonableness, and workability in democratic situations.

No votes are taken, no policies formed, no resolutions for or against are passed, no overt action by the club as a whole allowed.

Ours is not a political organization, not the tool of the reigning majority, and not subject to exploitation by a strong student personality for the promotion of personal ambition. It is rather a place where young persons may learn some of the facts of our governmental life directly from those who participate in it and where they themselves may gain valuable experience in the give and take of argument.

LAST year, while our legislature was in session, we organized a bus trip to the state capital. Through an exceptionally efficient committee which was responsible for all the arrangements, the club was able to obtain the assistance of the local state representative. During the day's experience we visited the house of representatives in a lively session, lunched with members of the legislature in the legislative restaurant, and attended a committee hearing on bills of special interest to our town's citizens. Anyone who may still believe that politicians are not concerned about the political interests and activities of school children might have been surprised at the interest displayed. Obviously those actively engaged in the business of politics are vitally concerned in the matter. Many members of the legislature were obviously surprised at our presence, but their interest and approval was very apparent. Once back in school the trip was the subject of numerous talks given by students

to some of those unable to make the trip.

Need we analyze minutely the democratic gains distillable from the experiences of these young democrats? It seems unnecessary, for if the continuation of democratic government means the encouragement of a thoughtful approach to our national problems, or an awakening of a feeling of personal responsibility on the part of the youth in our schools, or the development of an abiding interest in governmental processes through knowledge of them and personal contact with them, then our trip made, beyond question, a positive contribution.

OUR schools are not and can not be a threat to democracy. True, there are some teachers whose belief in democracy has gone. There are some whose faith in some form of totalitarianism is strong. There are some schools and colleges whose thinking on our social problems may be colored more or less with some extreme form of socialism. Yet the anti-democratic school or school teacher is the exception. In hundreds of schools and colleges in America, clubs similar to the one just described are faithfully and competently transmitting the ideals of the democratic way of living and carefully training in the skills required to insure its perpetuation. My friend, the member of the board of education who was "worried about the teachers in the high school," has little to give her concern.

Pride of Birth?

RUTH ANDERSEN

TOO many children of our foreign-born belittle and refuse to accept the really fine teachings of their parents. In the place of what their parents can give them, they adopt the less admirable qualities and traits of American life with the result that they finally end up in the juvenile and criminal courts of our cities. This is indeed a serious problem, but an obvious one.

There exists also another group, which is probably the much larger of the two—those children who feel themselves apart from the rest of the school because their parents speak with an accent, because perhaps their mother can not read or write, because their food is different, or because their parents do not seem to understand American customs. A child in this group often feels that there is a line between him and the children of American-born parents, that in some peculiar and intangible way he is inferior to his classmates. He may be better looking, have more poise, be a better athlete, be a better actor, be a better student than the others, but still there is that feeling that he is not as good as they are. The tragedy of this situation is that they become somewhat ashamed of their parents and ancestry—a thoroughly deplorable state of

mind for all persons concerned—children, parents, teacher.

THERE are, I think, three definite reasons for this feeling of inferiority. One is the constant tendency of a minority to feel itself inferior to the majority. Another is that general attitude of Americans that we are a little lower than the angels and that all others are lower than us—becoming progressively lower as they are farther from us geographically. This is probably true of all countries, however, but it is not, for that reason, any more admirable in ourselves. The third reason lies with the teachers, and particularly with the teachers of the social studies, and, among those, with the teachers of history in particular.

THE fault with the history teachers is that they understand completely enough neither their subject nor their students, but especially their students. What has the history of the glory of Greece to do with the little Greek girl who was set apart from her companions for two years because she had to attend the Greek school several afternoons a week? What does the splendor that was Rome have to do with the boy who plays in a dance orchestra when he should be sleeping? What but failure do the various partitions of Poland mean to a student whose Polish parents work in a mill? Even in the study of current events, every nation of any size is criticized from left to right and back again. What is a poor youngster supposed to do? The problem has undoubtedly come before many teachers.

Making good citizens has many aspects besides teaching about citizenship. A program for capitalizing European parentage, for replacing a sense of inferiority with pride, is described by a teacher in the Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut.

THIS is how one teacher tried to solve it. The problem was brought to her attention whenever she had occasion to ask a student his nationality. He would "hem" and "haw" look up and down and finally with apparent reluctance say "Polish," "French," "German," "Italian," whatever the case might be. She soon discovered that at least one-half of the class had foreign-born parents, and hence one-half of the class had this painful attitude. As a result, one of the chief aims of the course was to instill wholesome understanding and pride in the people from whom they came. This aim had a two-fold aspect, that is, to give information and to create a happier attitude. There were various steps by which this aim was realized positively with some students and probably with others.

FRANKLIN ROOSEVELT was being discussed, and the teacher in a by-the-way manner asked what nationality his ancestors might be if one considered his name. After that had been discussed and several other Dutch names suggested including several with "Van" as prefixes, other prefixes were considered such as the German "Von," the French "De." From prefixes they went to suffixes such as the English "ton," the Scandinavian "sen" and "son," the Italian "ini," the old Roman "us," the Polish "wicz," and so on. By this time the students were, of course, thinking of their own and neighbors' names. The teacher suggested that it might be interesting to test this newly acquired knowledge by considering the name of each student in turn. In order to determine the nationality of a student, they therefore had two criteria: the name and the appearance. The class was definitely interested. It had acquired a new idea which concerned themselves, and each individual received special favorable attention. Thus, for the moment at least, they were interesting to themselves and to their classmates *because* of their nationality. For the moment at least they were thinking of their nationality and were not ashamed of it.

WHEN the class was studying the history of Greece, the girl whose parents were Greek, who had gone to Greek school in the afternoons after regular school, and who could read modern Greek, was familiar with some of its history and many of its hero-stories. She became the accepted student authority in the class. She was called upon whenever a question arose that the teacher thought she could probably answer, whether it was one relating to ancient history or to modern times. Thus she played a solo part and became a more important figure in the eyes of her classmates by the very fact of her nationality. Her nationality had been a help, not a hindrance. During a discussion on the history of Rome each student, at the suggestion of the textbook, answered the question, "Where were you when Caesar led his legions?" The Italian students in the class were expected to be authorities on Rome—not that they were—but they realized they should have been.

When, in current events, the teacher asked for and did not receive an answer relative to the history or a custom of a given country represented in the class, she would register mild surprise. After a few such, she gave an outside reading assignment of one hundred fifty pages on the history of the respective countries or three hundred pages on a man of that country. An oral discussion of the reading followed.

AT this point a very interesting incident occurred. There were several students of Polish extraction in the class, and the school and two libraries had practically no information on Poland. Every teacher is accustomed to the wails and complaints of students who cannot find the necessary books for outside reading. The teacher suggested to the class that the local Polish-American society donate books on the history of Poland to the school library—and it did. The books were presented in person by the president of the society to the school librarian. The librarian was favorably impressed by the president. The president and

hence the society came in direct contact with the school. The pupils responsible for the gift felt happy not only because they were noticed favorably but also because of the service rendered.

By the time the class was well along in modern European history, the students felt little constraint about mentioning their connection with a foreign country. It was something they accepted as people do blond or brown hair, blue or hazel eyes.

THESE students did not become less American because of their increased self-respect—on the contrary, as the following incident illustrates. The author of the text mentioned that the French national song, the "Marseillaise," had been written during the French Revolution. When a student mentioned this in class, the teacher said, "I wonder if all national songs have been written in times of crisis?" Someone knew vaguely that the "Star-Spangled Banner" was connected with a war. A new project was born. The class decided to find the origin, words, and music of the national songs of Europe and of South America. This time students drew lots for countries. In this way a French representative might get

the Polish national song, and a Pole, the German song, and so on. However, the class originated and favored the idea that everyone should look up and learn the words of the "Star-Spangled Banner." This incident shows that the students were probably better Americans as a result of their study of their parents' country of birth.

BY the end of the school year, the teacher felt that a decidedly desirable habit or attitude had been established. The students realized that they had a heritage of which they could be proud; that, if the country they represented had failed in some respect, there was a reason. For example, a Polish student would understand that the reason for his parents' lack of education was not an inherent inability on the part of the Polish people but that Poland had suffered many things which had not been the lot of more fortunate nations; that a nation torn by war and partitions and dominated by harsh rulers does not develop its educational system to any appreciable extent. In these ways that sense of inferiority was reduced greatly if not done away with entirely. The result, to the keen observer, is a happier group of people.

Teaching the High IQ's

HAZEL TAYLOR

THE first thing to know about a homogeneous group is that it is not homogeneous. To be sure, there is less variation here than in an unclassified group, but, even so, there is a wide range of abilities, for which we must make allowance. In the advanced group that I have at present the IQ's range from 102 to 143. Even in a school of over four thousand we have difficulty in finding enough really bright ones to complete a class. Therefore, we add those of mediocre ability who have enough character or ambition or whatever it takes besides a high IQ to do good work. It is clear that in the lower reaches youngsters need different treatment from that of the highest third. Therefore our problem of adjusting work still remains, though it is greatly reduced.

The IQ ratings were given several years ago when the children were in the eighth grade and are, therefore, not to be taken too seriously. There is possibility of error either in computing or in recording them, since they have been transferred many times. Another chance of error is that the age may be recorded inaccurately, which would make a difference of several points one way or the other. Low physical vitality may reduce a child's energy and therefore

In taking care of our new high school population are we neglecting our brilliant students? Many think so. A teacher in a Philadelphia high school tells of her efforts to meet needs of high-ability students.

accomplishment, although the potential ability is still there. Lack of training at home in habits of industry may cause a child to do less than his best. Finally, we must remember that the mental test measures only a part of the child. Traits of character and personality have a definite effect on the sum total of the individual. I find myself, nevertheless, identifying them by their IQ's rather than by their names, as if they were convicts with numbers. Thus the boy in the front row becomes "142" instead of "Herman," and I expect corresponding achievement.

We do not confine ourselves to the IQ in classifying the children but also use the child's record and the teacher's judgment. Since the latter is highly subjective, the child recommended by one teacher often is the despair of the next.

In addition to my bright class this term, I have two slow ones in the same grade. These are selected in the same way and consist of those who have difficulty in reading standard texts and in comprehending the ideas they contain. The IQ's in these classes are nearly all below 100. This lets me compare the two extremes and, incidentally, to make myself over between classes. The subject is United States history since the Civil War. Our object is not so much to teach the facts of history as to give to each group the training that it needs.

FOR the slow classes this need seems to be practice in reading simple material within their comprehension. We have prepared for them an easy narrative of the period with

eleventh-grade ideas in fifth-grade language. We read it in class and explain any part that seems vague. One little girl just couldn't grasp the idea that we leased the Canal Zone, and economic imperialism is pretty hard sledding. They have had the same period of history three years ago, but all trace of it has been completely erased from their minds. To all intents and purposes it is virgin soil.

THE need of the advanced class is different. These students have had an easy time in school. They have grasped ideas quickly and been able to express them fluently. Lessons have had no terrors for them. They are bursting with confidence and vigor. The need here is to tame their ability and direct it so that it may become a useful tool instead of merely a noise making machine. The students do not agree with me on this point. They have a definite antagonism to work. In fact, they would like to discuss something—just anything—all the time. They are shining lights in the preview when we spend several days getting acquainted with a new subject. In sharp contrast to the slows they have a perfect flood of contributions. Their earlier work has left its mark on their minds, and they have been adding information ever since. We stop to learn just what new uses there are for southern white pine and to listen to the superiority of industrial over craft unions. I can count on their ability to keep the main theme in mind even though we make rather wide excursions into surrounding territory.

STANDARDS

WHEN this part of the work is over, I experience difficulty because I expect them to study the same material more in detail by themselves. They disapprove. I insist. It seems to me of vital importance that they learn to work independently. I shouldn't expect this of low IQ's. A child with an IQ of 87 can't do it, but with 140 he can, and I propose that he shall have ample opportunity to test his power.

In fact, at one time I had open revolt on my hands. It seemed that they preferred to be taught in the good old fashioned way—five pages of study every night and a recitation on it the next day. It was easy to see where I was classified; they had no use for my new fangled ideas. A test and a weekend intervened before we could return to the subject. Then one day I stood before them. I told them about Mrs Much-too-rich who told the nurse-maid that she wanted her child to learn only the rudiments of walking because he would always have plenty of cars. I told them of Louis XVIII of France who grew so fat that he could no longer walk by himself but had to be moved about in a wheel chair. I told them about beggars in India who hold one arm in the air until it becomes useless in order to get sympathy and alms. At first they were mystified; then chuckles broke out here and there. Suddenly they all caught the idea, and we stopped to laugh. I spent practically a period explaining to them my purpose in demanding independent work, and why it would be useful especially in a chaotic world. At the end I said, "Now, where is your insurrection? Bring it on." One boy looked at me with a grin and said, "It is quelled, Miss Taylor."

Since they can master the essentials easily they have time to enrich the course by wide reading. Some of them are preparing term talks on "The Philippines; their early history, American occupation, the movement for independence," "The Labor Movement since the Civil War," and others of similar scope. These will be delivered before the class, and each will last for approximately forty minutes.

In dealing with an advanced class it is very easy to overload them with work because they can do it. We must remember though that some of them are in other advanced classes or are taking the English honors course, and that, after all, they have only twenty-four hours a day just the same as the rest of us. It is of course inevitable that they should have some more work than

a slow or a normal class, but we do try to make the difference not so much one of quantity as one of quality. That is not always as easy as it sounds, but we do try to make a more mature approach and to expect more significant results.

One of my friends has a class in second year English with IQ's that could, without fear of exaggeration, be called "High Q's" for they range from 126 to 150. She asks, and, what is more, they answer such questions as these, "In what sense is all language metaphorical?" or "Why do the earliest forms of literature appear as poetry?" Here she is drawing upon information previously acquired which is to be organized in a new pattern, and which requires intelligence of a high caliber.

The class I have at present is not quite such good material so that a disproportionate amount of time is necessary to get the groundwork of facts before we can begin to take the next step of rearranging them in new patterns. Nevertheless, I try to make the work just difficult enough to be a challenge without asking the impossible.

TONE

THE flavor of an advanced class is something quite distinctive, almost heady at times. There is a vigor of mind and body that is exhilarating even if definitely fatiguing. Frankly, they are noisy, very noisy. I suppose one reason they talk so much is that they have so much to say. At any rate they do say it. There is this however in their favor, that, when they do settle down, their attention is just as profound as their disorder was. There is a depth to them, a third dimension that reveals all sorts of amazing originalities. These slow children, by contrast, present a flat surface, sometimes placid, frequently transparent but never profound.

The high IQ's are articulate as well as noisy. One very noticeable characteristic is their extensive vocabulary. They have a wide range of interests and the ability to express themselves fluently. My object is

not to repress them, except as far as control is necessary to achieve some desirable goal. If they all talk at once no one can hear anything, and so that is reason enough for solo work.

They have a marked ability to handle material things. In a slow class, by contrast, pencils are always falling, whole piles of books suddenly totter and fall to the floor. It is very distracting and sometimes riotously funny. We stop everything until attention can again be turned to work. The advanced children, on the contrary, just don't drop things. Pencils and books stay in place, and, if something happens to fall, it is a matter of no moment; we go right on with no break in the thought. Their power of attention is such that they can withstand shocks that are ruinous to their less gifted comrades.

Their sense of responsibility is more pronounced. When a talk is due, it is ready; when books are needed, they are there. They are always supplied with necessary tools, while in a slow class it requires time to see that David has a piece of paper which he has forgotten for the tenth time and that Sylvia has a pencil sharp enough to use. On a test day every bright child is in his seat ready for the ordeal with no excuses to offer in a desperate hope of reprieve. Of course, they can afford to face life squarely and unafraid because they have the habit of success, and that does something to one's self-confidence.

Another evidence of this characteristic is their ability to continue work while I am out of the room. Sometimes I am in the library helping the quicker ones to find material, and when I return there is no disorder. Of course, I realize that this may not be superior morality but just a longer attention span and a greater ability to do independent work, but at least the results are good.

One of their delightful characteristics is a sense of humor. It differs definitely from that of slow youngsters. Slapstick comedy makes no appeal. They enjoy humor with

an intellectual flavor, but there is no question about their enjoyment. A very red young radical has gained the name "connoisseur of isms." The minutes of the secretary had better not be dull. One boy reported that we had been studying Pan-Americanism, but that we were all too patriotic to "pan" America. My present secretary writes the minutes in a different form each day. One day it was in verse; another in a series of news flashes. One day, after a particularly heated discussion, it appeared as a report of a prize fight, round by round. He reported of one boy that he had talked on the labor situation and "thanks to his husky appearance had frightened off any would-be critics."

They are modest because they realize there is so much to know and their standards are high. I feel awed before 140 or more and consider it a presumption on my part to supervise them. I might add that I conquer that feeling and supervise. One day 142 asked me if I taught social science. Upon my affirmative answer he looked at me with profound respect and murmured something about how much one had to know to teach it. Natural honesty prompted me to explain that I was no genius, that I couldn't approach his IQ, but I resisted that impulse. My only justification for directing them is that I have studied more than they have and have the advantage of years. Besides they need direction, and some one has to do it.

AIMS

BECAUSE most of them are children of parents in no sense prominent, they are content with aims far below their possibilities. I have talked to them to discover their

ambitions and to urge further training if it is at all possible. Of course, most of them do want college, but in too many cases there is an economic barrier. I am sure that the superior ones will never be content with routine work so I suggest scholarships, loan funds, etc. The very young "connoisseur of isms" wants to be a labor organizer. Fearing the unpopularity of this he returned later and urged me to write "math teacher" on the record I was keeping. I was disappointed in the ambitions expressed by this class, but they are children of the depression, and any job that offers a competence and a fair degree of security means much to them.

It is impossible for us to look ahead into the future. With the quick tempo of modern life we can not predict what equipment they will need in twenty years. Of one thing we can be reasonably sure, however, and that is that they will lead their associates. In order to do that worthily they will need habits of industry and accuracy. They will need self reliance and independence. They will need above all an ideal of service. They have been given much; then much should be required of them.

THOSE of us who have the privilege of dealing with the advanced classes carry a heavy responsibility. They are the group that will determine policies and make far reaching decisions to affect the lives of millions of their less gifted fellows. Whatever influence we have will bear fruit in these policies and decisions. We hope that it will tell in such a way that they will be made not for the immediate selfish interest of any one class but for the ultimate good of all mankind.

Unitary Organization

DOMITILLA HUNOLT

DEFINITION of the "Unit of understanding" is a problem in itself. The term "unit" is not used accurately in educational literature. Unitary organization is sometimes referred to as "large topic" organization. "Unit" has been used synonymously with problem, project, contract, topic, or as an educational slogan to describe various developments, some of them of doubtful value. It has been used to mean a rearrangement of subject matter into larger blocks which take the place of the traditional chapters or textbook subdivisions; but actually it is not the same as a topic, chapter, or section. Ordinarily a first experiment in unitary organization is more than a re-outlining of a semester's work.

In its consideration of what the unit of understanding is and what is the psychological foundation for unitary organization, this paper will follow Henry C. Morrison's ideas as developed in *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*: "In general, any actual learning is always expressed either as a change in the attitude of the individual or as the acquisition of a special ability or as the attainment of some form of

skill in manipulating instrumentalities or materials." ¹ In this essential idea he agrees with E. L. Thorndike, to whom learning consists in "changes produced in the learner," with F. N. Freeman, who defines it as "the modification of inherited responses and the acquisition of new responses," or with W. W. Charters, to whom learning is "gaining appreciation and control over the values of life." ²

Professor Morrison believes that, in the same way that an individual's attitude toward his own behavior is changed when he acquires a new conception of duty in the moral world, so the learner who has acquired a new conception in the field of social relations, as for instance liberty under the law, gains a new attitude toward society, which will inevitably modify his behavior. Likewise, when a pupil has attained the level of primary reading adaptation, his intellectual organization has undergone a change. "Skill" is facility. To him also the learning products that are the objectives of teaching are always attitudes, special abilities, or skills. Attitudes are attitudes of understanding or attitudes of appreciation.

In speaking of these learning products as adaptations, he uses the term in the same sense that the biologist uses it, explaining that, as the physical organism has reached higher forms by a series of adjustments to environmental conditions called the process

What is a unit? What distinguishes unitary from other organization for teaching or learning? The present analysis of various answers that have been given was written in a graduate seminar at Drake University, Des Moines.

¹ Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1926, p. 19. rev. ed., 1931.

² W. H. Burton, *The Nature and Direction of Learning*. New York: Appleton, 1929, pp. 24-25.

of evolution, so man has in a similar manner acquired his superior mentality by a process of ideational adaptation to the world in which he lives. "Thus the process of education or adjustment to life-conditions is made up of adaptations, and the true learning products [except skills] are for the most part adaptations."³

In this way Professor Morrison evolves the definition of the unit as "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned, results in an adaptation in personality."⁴ Another writer has expressed the same idea by saying that "the 'unit' is best regarded as a concept, attitude, appreciation, knowledge, or skill which is to be acquired by the pupil and which, if acquired, will presumably modify his thinking or his other behavior in a desirable way"⁵ and another by saying that a unit "is any division of subject matter, large or small, that when mastered gives an insight into, an appreciation of, or a mastery over, some aspect of life."⁶ To Harry Lloyd Miller, the challenge, or unit, is "any body of materials or principles presented as a basis of study for a class group."⁷

THE unit, then, differs from a daily assignment in that it is a part of a subject studied as a whole and from a topic in that it emphasizes a change in the pupil. Professor Morrison distinguishes between a unit and a chapter thus: "The critical difference between a true unit of learning and a mere chapter heading is the difference between a significant and comprehensive aspect of the environment, or of a science, which can be understood, and a mere division of descriptive or expository subject matter which cannot be understood except in relation to other chapters which themselves stand in isolation."

³ 1926 ed., pp. 22-23.

⁴ 1931 ed., pp. 24-25.

⁵ R. O. Billet, "Plans Characterized by the Unit Assignment," *School Review*, November, 1932, p. 661.

⁶ W. C. Ruediger, "The Learning Unit," *School Review*, March, 1932, p. 176.

⁷ *Directing Study*. New York: Scribner, 1922, p. 367.

tion."⁸ Rolla M. Tryon sees a similarity between the unit in history, defined as "a body of facts closely related which belong to the same chronological period" or "a generalization which sums up the most significant line of development of a period," and what was formerly called an epoch, also understood as a period of time characterized by a significant movement or event.⁹

DETERMINATION OF THE UNIT

WHOEVER chooses units of understanding must generalize, must "read meaning into"¹⁰ the subject matter, which Morrison says has no value in education except as it is analyzed into significant units of learning capable of generating adaptations in the pupil, and must, out of the sum of human knowledge, select some of those few significant aspects that require teaching. It is evident, therefore, that to set up a "provisional organization as a pedagogical hypothesis" is no easy task but one that requires understanding of the principles of unitary organization, a thorough knowledge of the subject under consideration and its related fields, a correct conception of the subject's place in general education, prolonged reflection over the problem, and a comprehensive philosophy of education and of life.¹¹

SEVERAL considerations will influence the curriculum maker in his division of a school subject. One of these is the philosophy of education from which the study unit is to be written.¹² Also an individual will be guided in his selection by his own interpretation of the particular subject.

⁸ 1926 ed., p. 177; see also V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*. Boston: Heath, 1928, p. 293.

⁹ *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*. New York: Scribner, 1935, p. 518.

¹⁰ H. E. Wilson, "The 'Unit' in the Social Studies," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, September, 1934, p. 30.

¹¹ E. C. Fontaine, "The Unit Plan of Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, January, 1932, p. 21.

¹² L. J. Hopkins, *Some Suggested Steps in the Construction of a Course of Study in Any Subject*. New York: Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, p. 1.

"Units are simply interpretations of subject matter."¹³ If the curriculum maker holds to the economic interpretation of history, he will make one choice; if he believes that geography has been the greatest influence in shaping life, he will make another; and, if he believes that history should teach a moral lesson, he will make still another. If the course maker in geometry thinks that this subject develops mental discipline, he will keep this purpose in mind; and, if he thinks it should give insight into environment, he will try to see that it does that. "The units as such do not determine or define the purposes of education; these purposes determine and define the units."¹⁴

Teaching objectives will be kept clearly in mind—those concepts, attitudes, appreciations, knowledge, or skills considered desirable for the pupil. The objective in every case "will be either a principle or body of principles to be understood or a power to be gained,"¹⁵ rather than pupil performance, pages to be read, material to be covered, facts to be remembered, problems to be worked, or lectures to be attended. As a means to the attainment of any particular mastery that is the central objective, there will also be developed other outcomes in the form of attitudes, understandings, knowledge, or ideals that become a part of the personality of the pupil and may be used in life situations of a totally dissimilar nature.¹⁶ To determine what outcomes are most desirable, the teacher should observe and study the class and make a decision on the basis of the academic factors and social and moral factors involved.

Although knowledge of the background, preparation, special interests, and needs of the class and its members is gained by the

work of a previous semester and by general contact with the class, the teacher should not rely on such chance information, but on frequent, systematic pre-testing.¹⁷ Tompsie Baxter obtained information regarding the composition of the new class from a conference with its former teacher, from the class records, from reports submitted at entrance, from parents, and from the class IQs and the class median.¹⁸

In selecting and organizing material, the teacher or curriculum maker should consider the special needs of the community and of the school, the place the subject is to fill in realizing the aims and ideals of the school, and the trends of the time. Also, as S. C. Parker points out, subject matter should be adapted to social needs that vary with time, with communities, and with groups in the same community or even institution; and skillful planning can be more effective than direct moralizing for strengthening desirable and discouraging undesirable trends of the environment. Any such consideration of circumstances ought to be to present and actual conditions, not future or desired conditions. The organizer of a unitary course should take careful account of the material available and of the age and intellectual development of the pupils so that units will not be too difficult or too long for their understanding. The curriculum maker will, in the selection of the unit, consider the nature of the course, that is, whether it will be used in a survey course in which a short time will be spent on each of many things or an intensive course in which fewer topics will be studied more at length.¹⁹

¹⁷ V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*, pp. 296, 299.

¹⁸ "Some Techniques and Principles Used in Selecting and Teaching a Unit of Work," *Teachers College Record*, November, 1929.

¹⁹ See V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*, pp. 299-300; H. E. Morrison, 1926 ed., esp. p. 183; S. C. Parker, *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*. Boston: Ginn, 1920, p. 50; H. E. Wilson in *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, September, 1934, pp. 30-31; D. L. McMurry, "Type-Study Units in the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, December, 1933.

¹³ H. E. Wilson in *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, September, 1934, p. 30.

¹⁴ W. C. Ruediger in *School Review*, March, 1932, p. 177.

¹⁵ H. C. Morrison, "Studies in High-School Procedure-Mastery," *School Review*, March, 1921, p. 183.

¹⁶ W. J. Grinstead, "The Unit of Learning: Its Meaning and Principles," *Educational Outlook*, November, 1932, p. 16.

ASSIMILATIVE MATERIAL AND THE UNIT

It is important to distinguish, as Professor Morrison does, between the adaptation, or learning products, and the assimilative material that brings about the adaptation—the first is the end, and the second only the means. Many activities do not become learning products but serve to develop the adaptation. When the objective in studying the French Revolution is an understanding of the nature and consequences of a long period of personal rule, the student will read and hear much about Voltaire, Rousseau, Louis XIV, Louis XV, Danton, Robespierre, and others. He will, in a sense, live through the experiences of these characters, but these experiences will not be products in learning. They may, or may not, serve to develop the desired attitude. They may be forgotten quickly. Likewise, in coming to understand the use of the quadratic equation, the pupil will work many problems as illustrations and will follow many explanations, but these activities are not learning products. They are assimilative material helpful in developing the adaptation. "It is the attitude which becomes the real and serviceable product of learning and not the experiences themselves; these may fade out of memory, but the conviction abides."²⁰

The term "element" may be applied to the subdivision of the unit. Elements are functional in that they throw light on the main problem and unify smaller elements to contribute to the understanding of the whole. Since the same idea may be an element in relation to the large problem and a unit in relation to smaller elements, the term "unit" is relative. By way of illustration of this point, William C. Ruediger points out that the French Revolution is often studied as a unit in general history. It may also, however, be studied, along with revolutions in other countries, as an item of

assimilation in the larger problem of the progress from medieval autocracy to modern democracy.²¹

If the course maker applies Professor Morrison's test question "What material shall be focused upon this unit in order to bring about the appropriate understanding?" and resists the temptation to include traditional facts for the sake of their intrinsic value as information, there is no danger that the unitary course will contain the "encyclopedic" details set down in older courses and textbooks and complained of by many writers. In organizing a unitary course in history "the purpose is to select for study only such episodes, persons, and details as will serve to interpret or explain the significant aspects and movements of the past which contribute the units of the course. From this point of view, incidents are regarded as primarily illustrative in character, important not for themselves alone but rather as a means to an end, the end being the understanding of the unit. . . . Courses organized in accordance with the encyclopedic principle differ fundamentally, then, from courses planned in accordance with the unitary principle. In the first case subject matter is selected for its informational value and is presented usually as knowledge which is to be remembered. In the second case material is selected for its value in illuminating a historical movement, that is, as a means to comprehension. The first type of course has for its main end memorization or recall; the second has for its goal rationalization or understanding."²² The elements of assimilation serve to make intelligible the central idea or generalization, and they themselves attain their fullest significance when considered in relation to the generalization.

²⁰ In *School Review*, March, 1932, pp. 177, 179.

²¹ H. E. Morrison, 1926, ed., p. 25; Dr Morrison gives these and other illustrations of the relation of the learning products to the assimilative material on pp. 25-29, 191-96.

²² H. C. Hill and R. B. Weaver, "A Unitary Course in United States History for the Junior High School," *School Review*, April, 1929, p. 257; following Professor Morrison's general principles, C. A. Stone and J. S. Georges have formulated seven "General Principles of Unitary Organization," *School Science and Mathematics*, November, 1930, p. 906. See also H. E. Wilson in *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, September, 1934.

ARRANGEMENT OF ASSIMILATIVE MATERIAL

CUSTOMARILY, the order of arrangement of subject matter in the traditional textbook is either logical or chronological. From the standpoint of subject matter, there are certain advantages to each of these arrangements, but their serious disadvantage is that they are concerned with the results of learning and not with its process. Logical organization may be called "the finished product of learning"²³ or, according to John Dewey, whatever is strictly logical from the standpoint of subject matter really represents the goal conclusions of an expert, trained mind. It is the training rather than the point of departure.²⁴

Children are unable to grasp abstractions or to make scientific deductions. Their manner of learning subject matter will vary at different age levels, and the organization of the unit will not be logical except for courses on the levels of secondary or college education. A logical organization which is used on lower levels must be the logical arrangement of the learner, not that of the teacher or textbook. In this connection Samuel C. Parker²⁵ calls attention to James' theory that a person learns by meeting a complex situation and analyzing it himself, not by being given the elements of the situation by someone else who has already studied them out.

Children do not understand long periods of time, and lack of social experience makes it impossible for them to understand events which are far removed in time and space. "As new data for the history scholar are attached to his present structure of information, so the new data for the child must be related to his fund of information—which is not temporal or logical grouping, but rather unsystematic bits of information about and

interest in a few hundred childish objects and acts."²⁶

In order to master the material, the teacher may organize it chronologically or logically in his own mind, but for teaching he should organize it psychologically in terms of pupil learning and not logically in terms of subject matter relationships, that is, he should arrange the material in terms of the pupils' interests and capacities for learning instead of in terms of the subject.

DEVELOPMENT OF UNITARY ORGANIZATION

THERE is nothing very new about the unit and "no one has the central idea copyrighted." Professor Morrison says that mathematicians and grammarians have always tended to organize material in units. A. C. Rosander sees in the unit in history "nothing more revolutionary than a shift of emphasis." He describes it as "traditional history pruned of irrelevant episodic materials, focused upon a few great periods and movements, and concentrated upon more clear-cut understandings."²⁷

Beginning in 1920, the movement for unitary organization spread, especially in the period 1928-31, until by 1932, the appearance of a course of study that was not based upon the unit-of-understanding idea was unusual.²⁸ Since 1932, the movement for unitary organization has continued. In 1935 the public schools of Des Moines adopted the unit plan of organization for the social sciences. Individual writers in different subjects have prepared unitary courses.²⁹

²³ A. I. Gates, "The Psychological vs. the Chronological Order in the Teaching of History," *Historical Outlook*, June, 1920, p. 229.

²⁴ "Adventuring with the Functional Unit," *Historical Outlook*, November, 1932, p. 363.

²⁵ See R. M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*, pp. 513, 519.

²⁶ Examples of these are C. J. Pieper and W. L. Beauchamp, *Everyday Problems in Science*. Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1933; J. I. Arnold, *Cooperative Citizenship*. Philadelphia: Row Peterson, 1933; H. E. Wilson, *Laboratory Manual in American History*. New York: American Book, 1929; D. C. Bailey, *A New Approach to American History*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 3rd. ed., 1931; R. M. Tryon and C. R. Lingley, *The American People and Nation*. Boston: Ginn, 1932.

²⁷ C. E. Reeves, *Standards for High School Teaching*. New York: Appleton, 1932, p. 84.

²⁸ *How We Think*. Boston: Heath, 1933, p. 62.

²⁹ *General Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools*. Boston: Ginn, 1922, p. 149. See also V. T. Thayer, *The Passing of the Recitation*, p. 292, and C. E. Reeves, *Standards for High School Teaching*, p. 292.

It is not possible to determine with accuracy the percentage of schools which at present use unitary organization. When the government of the United States conducted a survey in 1933, reports showed that more than half the courses for study in both junior and senior high school were organized on the unit or unit-problem plan, but examination of the content of those courses designated as unitary revealed six separate plans of organization. One of these plans included all the content found in chapters of textbooks and another contained an encyclopedic outline of content.³⁰

Not all persons who have prepared courses described as unitary have had a clear understanding of the principles of unitary organization. There has been published, under unitary terminology, material in the form of textbooks, workbooks, and study sheets which are only rearrangements of old-type subject matter. "The essence of the new-type unit is not in its size or its title, but in the internal selecting, organizing, and administering of its subject-matter for a fairly unitary educational objective."³¹

NECESSITY FOR CONTINUED REVISION OF THE UNIT

THERE is not and should not be a standardized unit. The advance in knowledge and educational conceptions and the march of human events make occasional revision of units necessary. Units which take account only of past developments will give the student the impression that the great problems, as nationalism and democracy, are settled. "Nevertheless the functional unit must look both to the past and toward the future without being dominated by either. Understanding ought to be dynamic not static since static thought forms are bound to lead to conservatism, inertness, and decay. Fixed formulae cannot keep the forces of civiliza-

tion under control, or meet new conditions, or solve new problems."³²

There is no "pre-ordered hierarchy of units" as there is no "pre-ordered hierarchy of ideas." Consequently, subject matter does not divide into universally "natural" units.

Unitary organization has not advanced out of the pioneer stage, and because of this fact many of the unique features of unit plans are arbitrary, subjective, and often unbalanced. Undoubtedly continued improvement in unitary organization will be made. Morrison calls attention to the experimental nature of the unit when he says: "As in the case of all scientific work, the theoretical unitary organization must be submitted to the test of experiment. If the organization is a good one, it works. . . . The objective results manifested in the class suggests the defects. Analysis reveals their cause and intelligent modification improves the organization. . . . The units which have been tried out are not necessarily the only units. These units are themselves subject to modification and rearrangement in the light of continued experience."³³

The acceptance of a standardized unit would be most undesirable. It would put teachers in a strait jacket. It would make unitary courses as stereotyped as the old ground-to-be-covered courses. However, teachers will probably find it necessary to revise or simplify units suggested by committees in accordance with the needs of their class and in the light of pre-determined objectives. If they use such units as bases for planning they will obtain much better results than they will without them. Since most teachers do not possess the scholarship, training, skill, or time to select and organize course material, they will do well to accept prepared courses when these are suitable and to spend as much time as possible mastering the material and preparing it for presentation to their pupils.

³⁰ W. G. Kimmel, "Instruction in the Social Studies," United States Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Bulletin* no. 17, 1932, p. 73.

³¹ G. W. Hodgkins, "'New Methods' as Applied to Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, November, 1932, p. 342.

³² A. C. Rosander in *Historical Outlook*, November, 1932, p. 364.

³³ 1926 ed., pp. 182, 195-96.

EVALUATION

THE movement for unitary organization is an attempt to lift education to that plane on which the early renaissance academies and the original Herbartians placed it, to that plane on which the purpose of teaching and learning is not the mastery of subject matter, of form, of facts, and of formulas, but the apprehension of meanings, fundamental principles, understandings, relationships, beliefs, and values that control behavior in the world. The achievement of this purpose would reestablish and make apparent the close relation between school learning and life.³⁴ Advocates of unitary organization hope that it will "substitute learning units for lessons, thinking for memorizing, understanding for knowledge, definite goals for uncertain results, directive study for answer reciting, student participation for student passivity, teacher guidance for teacher paternalism."³⁵

To what degree these aims will be fulfilled is problematical. Mere acceptance of a unitary curriculum will not assure better teaching. The unit concept must be understood as a theory of education based on philosophic and psychological considerations, not as a formula or as a method or technique of teaching. Too frequently, in the haste to conform to the new educational fashion,

teachers who have had no real understanding of the principles of unitary organization and no clear notion of what a unit is have accepted the teaching procedures which seem to be implied by the unit plan, and have used them "in a mechanical and superficial way which threatens to nullify the very essence of it."³⁶ Real advancement can be made only when there is a change of outlook on the part of both teacher and student. There is always the danger that the teacher will slip back into the recitation method in spirit if not in practice. Morrison is aware that unitary organization will not guarantee good teaching when he says: "The unit with its assimilative material . . . is perfectly capable of being used as daily lesson learning and as only another form of ground-to-be-covered. Whether it is so used or is used for the attainment of the specific objective implied in the unit will depend upon the teacher and upon his perception of the principles of learning involved. The outline may be committed to the pupil and assigned in a series of tasks to be performed. In that case, the result will be only causal or accidental learning. In the secondary school, at least until the pupil has reached the level of intellectual self-dependence, the mastery of the real learning product will depend upon the teaching procedure employed and the skill with which it is applied."³⁷

³⁴ W. H. Burton, "The Unit Concept in Learning: An Attempt at Simple Explanation," *Educational Outlook*, May, 1933.

³⁵ A. C. Rosander in *Historical Outlook*, November, 1932, p. 361.

³⁶ W. J. Grinstead in *Educational Outlook*, November, 1932, p. 9.

³⁷ 1926 ed., pp. 193-94.

Making Slides in Elementary School

DELLA M. ANGELL

MOST teachers have come to believe that the written and even the spoken word is not enough in teaching—that it is desirable to add visual stimulus wherever possible. Pictures put meaning into words. They furnish variety, arouse interest, and build concrete conceptions, and promote a definite understanding. They make lasting impressions and introduce new ideas. In order to be thoroughly effective, pictures ought to be large enough to be seen by the whole class.

Lantern slides adapt themselves readily to these specifications. It is probable that there is a lantern slide to fit almost any condition, but to obtain the particular slide at a particular time is often difficult. To teach pupils to make their own slides avoids that difficulty. Moreover it develops the child's creative ability and provides the thrill of accomplishment. There is a good deal of pleasure to a child in seeing his own work magnified on the screen, glowing with life and color. Such a thrill has to be experienced. It can not be explained.

Since making slides creates a desire to know more about the subject involved, it is necessary that the picture be related to the

subject being taught in class. Even the dull-est pupil in the class ought to be allowed to make a slide, and the teacher will be surprised how much more interest he then takes in the classroom work.

It is possible to trace or sketch with a lead pencil on etched glass any picture that you wish to present. If you wish an accurate reproduction of a bridge, map, or house, place a slide $3\frac{1}{4}$ by $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches, the exact size of the stereopticon glass, over an illustration in a book and trace the outline. The pupil may then color the picture. Colored slides appeal more to the child than do the black and white pictures. Colored pencils may be purchased for ten cents, or regular tracing pencils may be used. Tests, outlines, maps are quickly made on slides. A child seldom spends more than thirty or forty minutes in making any slide. He can do it in his leisure periods.

After the slides are finished they may be placed in the lantern and thrown on a screen in a darkened room. The white side of a map furnishes a good screen, or you can make a screen of heavy white cloth. Place it in a frame, and give it a coat of whitewash. It must not be transparent. The large picture thrown on the screen will be 6 x 8 feet square. The nearer to the screen the lantern is placed the smaller the picture will be.

SLIDES may be made on plain glass, covering the glass with Bon Ami and then tracing the desired picture on it. Or slides may be made by using India ink on the plain glass. A quarter of a teaspoonful of

Class activities, visual education, and community study are all very much to the fore these days. These instructions for making slides, contributed by a teacher in LaPorte, Indiana, bear on all three developments.

ordinary cooking gelatin dissolved in a cup of hot water will coat twenty-five slides. Spread the gelatin evenly with the finger on the clean and dry glass. Hold the glass in a horizontal position to dry or in a warm place. You can then write or draw on the surface, as you would on paper. Ink and ordinary water colors will stay there. Slides also may be made of amber cellophane cut to the slide size. The picture is then drawn on with India ink and inserted between two plain glass slides hinged together with gummed paper. On the screen the effect is charming.

For typewritten slides, on which you may type your test questions, you may obtain sheets of gelatin twenty inches square from any supply house handling photographic materials. Cut strips to slide size, place between two pieces of carbon paper, the carbon side toward the film so as to produce a carbon impression on both sides of the gelatin. Insert the carbon and gelatin sheets together with the backing sheet in the typewriter, as is done in making a carbon copy in an ordinary letter.

Plastacele, a Dupont product, which is not expensive, can be obtained in sheets 20 x 50. The sheets can be cut into $3\frac{1}{4} \times 4\frac{1}{4}$, and drawings can be traced on them with India ink and then the pictures colored with colored pencils. Transparent water colors may also be used to color the pictures. Slides made from plastacele may easily be filed away in ordinary envelopes and be ready for use at any later time, but they can be used only once.

CIGAR boxes furnish a good place to store the glass slides when being made and after they are made—one box for the slides pupils are working on and another for the finished slides. At the conclusion of a unit the etched slides may be cleaned with Bon Ami and be ready to receive the picture for the next unit. They may be used again and again. Few are broken because children are careful in handling them as they prize their own handiwork very highly. A lantern may

be purchased as cheaply as twenty-three dollars, but it is wiser to buy the best lantern that is possible as they can be used for years. If a school has no electricity, a Presto-Lite gas tank may be used. Pupils can easily learn to manage the lantern.

THE advantages of such instruction in elementary school are varied and important. Slides can be used effectively in the teaching of any subject because of the greater vividness of imagery stimulated. Through the visual method there is less likelihood of untrue and false impressions being gained. A larger number of pupils may be instructed at the same time, for the only limit is the capacity of the auditorium. The slides may be held indefinitely on the screen for a detailed study. The tactful teacher can point out situations in the picture which will help materially in the comprehension of the subject. Vocabularies may also thus be enriched. Slides furnish good material to arouse interest in such local projects as "Clean-Up Week" or "Fire Prevention." Nature study is stimulated by presenting plant, animal, and insect life through slides. Traffic safety and health rules are motivated through the use of slides. Slides furnish an endless opportunity for providing material for developing language and reading lessons.

WHEN slides are thrown on the screen the pupil tells the story he is to report on. At the time he prepared his report, he has made his slide which is being shown. After this floor talk, the other pupils whose interest has been aroused will ask questions and the reporter will answer what he can. The teacher must be prepared also to give additional information, but children ought also to be encouraged to search reference books for further information. Thus pictures supplement the instruction in the classroom to a degree that is almost impossible by any other method. In a few minutes pupils gain from the screen what they would have gained only after hours of reading the

same information and might not have obtained even then. They have obtained concrete impressions. Invariably a teacher who has tried it testifies that knowledge gained from pictures outlasts all other forms of instruction, and her impressions can be confirmed by testing pupils after long intervals.

THE following lesson is typical of the procedure followed in presenting a social science unit on Norway to a 4A group

TOPICS	SLIDES
Government of Norway	Map of Norway Norwegian flag National Hymn written on a slide
Farm life at the foot of the mountains	Picture of a farm with its various buildings
Crops raised	Barley Fodder crops
Men's work	Haying Drying of hay
Women's work	Making bread Cattle and goats Making butter and cheese
Visit to a saeter	A saeter home
Waterways Guards	
Lumbering	Lumber rafts on lakes Locks
Trees used for lumber and their uses	Illustration of a visit to a Norwegian forest
Electricity	Waterfalls
Glaciers	Glacier

TOPICS	SLIDES
Winter sports	Skiing
Fishing	
Fishing of herring	A herring fleet
Fishing of cod	Fish market
A visit to a fish market, and to a fish canning factory	Drying fish
Comparison of seasons with our own	Make two clocks, a Norwegian and American clock to show time sun rises and sets in each land on July 4th or December 25th.
Comparison of work on an American farm in Minnesota with the work of the Norwegian farmer	Work on an American farm illustrated. Pictures of corn, wheat
Norwegians of note, Lindbergh, Ole Bull, Grieg	Illustration from Peer Gynt

After the completion of a unit, the slides pupils have made should be shown at an assembly. Pupils may arrange a dramatization, weaving it around the prepared slides. The dramatization may take the form of a radio broadcast or a meeting of the travel club, or fairies may waft the class to the land they desire to present to their audience. Music, games, stories, riddles, and dances of the land represented may be interspersed with the pictures shown. Pupils may wear simple costumes. A handkerchief and an apron work marvels in impressing an imaginative audience. Invite the pupils of other rooms, and the parents, to such an assembly. Hardly a subject in the curriculum but can benefit by such use of slides. "One picture is worth ten thousand words."

Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

CONGRESS has assembled itself in the capitol at Washington and has focused the country's attention on the solution of its troubles by political means, but the prevailing opinion about the hopefulness of that solution is not reassuring. Kenneth G. Crawford's "Washington's Big Show" in the December 31 issue of the *Nation* is typical of the character of printed opinion. "It is not a pretty prospect. The final Congressional session of every two-term Administration has been a futile affair. This one, judging from advance billings, will be even more so. Already the returning members have made it clear that hopes for some sort of Democratic unity, based on the assumption that an enlarged Republican minority would distract the majority from family fights, were engendered by wishful analysis of the election returns. . . . There will be no reforms or advancements of the social frontier at this session."

It is not, however, that important problems do not lie all around us. Whatever may be one's own opinion about the relative wisdom and degree of success of past measures for reform and recovery, no one can for a moment doubt the urgent necessities of our present social and economic situation. It is to these necessities that Congress and the country at large ought to address itself.

ECONOMIC PROBLEM NUMBER ONE

ONE of the important problems before the country is the one that the President has called the nation's economic problem number one, that is, the South. For a whole train of reasons which have been ig-

nored both by the South and the North, the Southern part of our country has continued to be, in many of its aspects, an entirely separate region ever since the Civil War. It has contributed largely to the federal wealth of our country, but it has, as a region, become increasingly poverty stricken, and, being poverty stricken, has shown the mental and physical characteristics of that condition.

Even in her limited residence and visits in the South, this Northerner, who was born and reared in a politically powerful state that is always "doubtful," is constantly surprised at obvious and visible evidences of the federal government's lack of generosity to the South. In such matters, for instance, as buildings to house the local post offices the meanest hamlet in her own politically doubtful state has been dealt with more generously by the changing federal administrations, Democratic and Republican, than have fair sized towns in the South. In her youth and to some extent even today, the payments of Civil War pensions explained a good deal of the economic system of her own community, and largess from the federal government in the form of a protective tariff was an obvious necessity for the community's industries; but, though the South has contributed heavily to the federal treasury, directly and indirectly, she has not had her share of the enjoyment. Even the present Democratic administration allows to the Solid Democratic South a good deal less than what would seem to be its proportional share of relief funds (see, for instance, figures and pictographs in *Life* for May 23, 1938, men-

tioned in *Social Education*, September, 1938, p. 424). As a matter of practical political experience, why should it be otherwise for a region that won't be persuaded to vote against the Democratic party in any case?

Last month A. K. King, a born Southerner now teaching at the University of North Carolina, discussed in the pages of this magazine the "Enigma of the South."

SOUTHERN problems are discussed in the Winter number of the *Virginia Quarterly Review* by Maury Maverick, another born Southerner and until the latest election a representative from Texas to the federal House of Representatives. In an article called "Let's Join the United States" he says: "For anyone to speak lightly or vindictively of the soul-breaking problems of the South would be vicious and mean. It was not originally the 'fault' of the South itself. I am not trying to express moral indignation; I merely try to state a condition."

He speaks of the aspect of the South which presents a region of "poor whites and underprivileged Negroes; of the worst labor conditions in the United States, of unstable business and agriculture, of the lowest standard of living; of lynching bees; of the lowest production in dairy products and green vegetables, the worst housing and the lowest wages anywhere in our country." Today "the South, as much as any British colony of old or today, is a colony, with headquarters in New York. There live the Privy Lords of Trade and Plantations, who pull the strings, send out the propaganda, make the decisions, and through economic, and consequently political power, govern the South by remote control. . . . What is the general effect on the South of all its accumulated problems? It has been to make of the South and its people an irritated, chip-on-the-shoulder minority. For straight thinking upon our own problems, we have substituted romance, and for answer to questions we have substituted the dare to fight for the dear old Southland."

AS a way out he recommends "breaking the financial domination of the North, establishing the protection of labor conditions, and backing the promotion of federal projects—including conservation, slum clearance, and low-cost housing. Plainly, this must be through state action as well as national. From a state viewpoint, the constant outgo of capital can be halted by requiring certain investments in the state. Texas did that in insurance laws, and they were very successful; the only reason such laws have not been effective is that there have not been enough of them. . . . From the national point of view, the South must co-operate with national measures, including spending from a national viewpoint—of which a majority of Southern congressmen disapprove. . . . The South must be in position to demand better freight rates and fairer tariffs."

Putting the past back into the past, and facing the future as the future he says, "Let us say the condition of the South was forced upon us by the slave shippers of New England, and that New England stole the slaves away; let us lay it on those who destroyed us in the Civil War, and then kicked us down under the heel of Eastern exploitation. But let us agree that this is merely history, and solves nothing for the future. Let us resolve that from here on out we are determined to free ourselves. If we do not, this time it will be our own fault."

THERE are also a good many hard things said about the South, and it well becomes a Southerner to think, speak, and write such things. There is a good deal of truth in them, and it seems well for Southerners to dwell on that measure of truth, but for Northerners the case is different. Northerners need to remember that there really are magnolia blossoms in the South, that the South does have an illustrious tradition even though it was not a literary one which left its own proof behind it, and that much of the South's misery lies at our door. Therefore, if you are a Southerner I urge

you to reread Mr King's article in last month's *Social Education* and to read this article by Mr Maverick even at the cost of buying the magazine (Charlottesville, Virginia: University of Virginia. Single copy, 75 cents).

OTHER NATIONAL PROBLEMS

ON the other hand, if you are a Northerner, it is in no sense required reading! Perhaps you had much better devote your attention to another article among this month's magazines, for instance, the second part of "Housing—A National Disgrace" by Charles Stevenson in the January *Atlantic*. Mr Stevenson has been interested in tracing out the details of the situation in which federal and local housing programs find themselves thwarted by the high costs of building due to "abuses of the building trades; the ancient, inflexible, graft-ridden design of the construction business; and, most important, the strangle hold that labor exerts to choke reforms that would facilitate establishment of a mechanized mass-production housing industry. There was also evidence that the government has capitulated to labor in this obstructionism."

THE Northerner, and the Southerner, for after all the Southerner inherits his share of all federal problems along with the full load of his own troubles, might read in the Winter issue of the *Yale Review* Myron W. Watkins' article on "The Monopoly Investigation" being conducted by the Temporary National Economic Committee. He believes the committee will not be able to accomplish anything until it considers the fundamental problem of whether, after all, competition is worth preserving in the aspects of business life where it remains at all and worth trying to restore where it has disappeared. Then, if free competition is no longer a prudent and effective means of control, what are the alternatives?

He represents opinions in this matter as divided among four different theories: (1) those who, like Mr Justice Brandeis, would

limit arbitrarily the size of business units either by direct law or by taxation on the theory that size in itself is a menace; (2) the social-economic planners who believe that competition is no longer feasible as a method of regulating and controlling production and distribution, and that, therefore, the only solution to our problems lies in government direction and control of "investment, regulating production, fixing prices, and distributing income"; (3) those who would depend upon the education and reeducation of big business in its own responsibilities to the community and in the demands of its own interests in the long run; and (4) those "of whom the writer is one."

These reject the first theory because, though "feasible and not unpromising," its standards of efficiency and coordination would not realize a level of living and security high enough to satisfy our present demands. They reject the second because, "assuming all the good will and good faith in government which is taken for granted by the advocates of the second program, the certain intensification of the rigidity and lack of adaptability in the economic system to which such a régime must lead cannot be contemplated without misgiving. The sacrifice of individual discretion, responsibility, and spontaneity which is involved in such a program seems to us, from the long-run standpoint, too high a price to pay for its prospective short-run advantages in increased security." The third seems to these equally impossible because "the regeneration of industrialists and financiers is not likely to be accomplished by education, exhortation and statutory precept, the while that the internal organization of business enterprise remains unmodified."

WHAT then is the positive program which Mr Watkins advocates? It "involves the retention of the essential principle of industrial control . . . through the mutual checking or counterpoise of divergent private interests"—that is, competition—but it discards the effort, which has been

traditional public policy, "to protect the public interest through enforcement of competition in the market."

Since our efforts to arrest the progressive disappearance of competition by regulation of the market, "it seems not unreasonable to shift the focal point of public economic policy from the markets in which competition no longer functions effectively to what lies behind those markets. That means focussing attention upon the corporation." He would remodel our tax state corporation laws and, within the frame of a federal incorporation, provide for the representation in its control of divergent interests. "Can we find a more promising line of attack upon the problem than in rescuing the corporation from the irresponsible management to which the tax corporation laws of charter-mongering States have exposed it and in providing for the orderly expression, interplay, and adjustment of opposing private interests within the business unit itself?"

RAILWAY problems continue to get the attention of thoughtful articles. Last month I discussed one such article at some length, "Railroads under Pressure," from the *Atlantic* for December. In the Winter *Yale Review* "Today's Railroad Problem" by I. L. Sharfman in a less comprehensive article comes to the conclusion that "government must necessarily play an important and positive rôle in meeting this need, but largely by way of modifying and strengthening its established regulatory processes. While failure at this juncture would be fraught with grave consequences, proposals for outright nationalization of the roads are not likely to receive serious consideration without considerable further trial of our traditional system of private management and public regulation."

CIVIL service reform continues to be ignored. No one denies the necessity of some radical changes in our present methods of choosing and dealing with the great body of men and women who actually administer

the political decisions of our law-making bodies. The last session of Congress defeated the President's proposal for administrative reorganization; but it has not discussed that plan or any other plan on its merits. Present indications for any change in that attitude are discouraging.

Meantime the results of recent elections all over the country remind us that throughout most of our civil service we use methods of hiring and firing that would throw private business into bankruptcy before the year was out.

Time in its issue of January 9 quotes a compilation by the Civil Service Reform League as finding "that 99,000 Democrats in 17 States will be turned out of political jobs by victorious Republicans. In two states (California, Maryland) 9,700 Republicans were turned out by victorious Democrats."

PUBLIC utilities, and the case of the government against public utilities, are still questions of first importance. Any light we can get on the question of what constitutes an equitable decision must be appreciated. For that reason "The TVA and the Utilities" by Richard Hellman in the January *Harpers* is useful, but it would have been more useful if it had applied itself to some questions which it wholly ignores. Most of us have long ago agreed that something ought to be done about the utilities with their inadequate service and their dubious financial methods, but we can not avoid questions about what manner of men they are who take over the management and control in the name of the government. In the TVA itself a much heralded administrator was forced to resign, his grave charges of mismanagement appear to have been made light of and hushed up, and the controversy continues over what constitutes proper accounting methods in such an undertaking.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHING

OR you may prefer to read articles that focus attention on your particular problems as a teacher. Two such current

articles are concerned with the use of hashish, with which the East has long been familiar. The editorial foreword of the January *Forum* "One More Peril for Youth" warns of this drug which is being used by boys and girls of school age under the name of marijuana. In the Winter number of the *American Scholar* Maud A. Marshall considers "Marihuana" at greater length. The narcotic is made from the hemp plant, a common weed as well as a commercially grown plant which is better known and more honorably regarded as a source of fibre, birdseed, and oil. "In the United States the leaves, flowers and resin of the hemp are usually dried, mixed with tobacco and made into cigarettes. . . . Only since 1930 have our officers of law and order considered marihuana-smoking a serious problem, and satisfactory statistics as to its use here have been and are difficult to secure. . . . Undoubtedly marihuana-smoking is widespread." The rapid increase in its use is "serious particularly because of its attraction for young people, who turn to it as an aid to the breakdown of conventional restraint and for artificial thrills and 'kicks'."

ANOTHER article in the same magazine considers the conflict between those called the traditionalists in education and those spoken of as progressives. In "Prejudice the Garden Toward Roses" I. L. Kandel "rejects the progressive theory of growth with nothing-fixed-in-advance, a planless education based upon the unselected experiences and needs of the child or even selected by cooperative, shared discussions of pupils and teachers. Growth cannot be self-directed. . . . The problem is not new; it was first posed in modern times by Rousseau and has been the subject of controversy ever since. It was answered for all time by Coleridge nearly 100 years ago in the following story:

"Thewall thought it very unfair to influence a child's mind by inculcating any opinions before it should have come to years of discretion, and be able to choose for itself. I showed him my garden, and told him it was my botanical garden. 'How so?' said he, 'it is covered

with weeds.'—'Oh,' I replied, 'that is only because it has not yet come to its age of discretion and choice. The weeds, you see, have taken the liberty to grow, and I thought it unfair in me to prejudice the soil towards roses and strawberries.'"

"THE Liberal Arts in Public Education" is a question of immediate as well as constant importance, and the discussion of the subject by Harry J. Carman in the *Columbia University Quarterly* for December warrants attention. It questions the current opinion that "all subjects competently taught for the same length of time" have "the same educational value," puts the case for the cultural subjects, and asks "—even though tentatively—whether, after all, there are not basic disciplines which should be part of the mental equipment of every educated person and possession of which may be gained more readily and easily from the liberal arts than from other subjects." By the "liberal arts," Professor Carman, himself a teacher of history, does not mean only, or even mainly, the social studies.

Although he admits that there may be others, he considers here the claims of four kinds of discipline. "The first is the discipline of exactness or precision, which is probably easiest to acquire from the study of mathematics and the physical sciences." Of the second: "Then, again, there are many phases of life and truth which can be apprehended only through the emotions. . . . I would make the discipline of appreciation a gateway to the realm of our emotions, of poetry, music, the fine arts, rather than stenography, office filing, and shop practice, the media through which I would cultivate this discipline." The "third basic discipline is open-mindedness and toleration. It needs no explanation but I cannot refrain from adding that here again I would turn to the liberal arts and especially to philosophy, religion, and the social sciences as the training ground for the inculcation of this discipline." The fourth is the "discipline of reflection, which should involve the synthesis of all one's opinions and the formulation of a philosophy of life."

Then, he adds, as if it were an after-thought but really by no means as an after-thought: "Were I to add a fifth discipline it would be that of constructive imagination, which is the source of power for poet, artist, man of science, and natural philosopher."

FOR teacher and citizen alike looms the question of free thought and free exchange of thought. It is the very foundation stone of our democratic way of life and government. Without it that democratic way can not survive, and with it very little can seriously menace our underlying structure. The November issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* is devoted to the question of "Freedom of Inquiry and Expression" and is edited by Edward P. Cheyney, who also contributes several of the separate articles. From his own chapter on "Observations and Generalizations" this quotation must suffice for there is not space here to do anything like justice to this collection. "Freedom of expression is not merely a personal privilege, nor is it only a defense against tyranny of government or of any other possessors of power; it is a condition of progress. Freedom is positive, restraint is negative."

To anyone who doubts what war will do to our rights to freedom of speech and inquiry I recommend reading about censorship in the extracts from "The Lost Files of the Creel Committee of 1917-19" that are printed in the January issue of the *Public Opinion Quarterly*. No one can believe that twenty years since the World War have made our country or the world more squeamish in the matter of such interference with the free exchange of criticism and ideas.

INTERNATIONAL CONFUSION

NEVERTHELESS all these immediately pressing problems of government and, in their accustomed measure, of education, too, seem destined to be lost in the confusion of ballyhoo concerning military and naval

"preparedness" and international relations. If the problems and expenditures of relief can be tied to armaments, then many political difficulties will be avoided and much valuable political capital will accrue. The "Survey of Public Opinion" in the January *Fortune* indicates that the majority of Americans believe that a great war looms clearly in the not far distant future and that we shall be drawn into any great war. There seems little indication that it will be difficult to obtain public support for vastly increased American armaments as a good in itself and as a method of affording public relief. Nevertheless, in the long run money spent on armaments is no more socially or economically productive than is the much-despised "raking of leaves" done by relief workers, and, though the waste is not so generally recognized, it is attended with much more grave consequences.

This is not to say, however, that the international situation is not every bit as bad as it is made out to be. Whichever way we turn the situation seems more menacing than it did the last time we observed it. In Europe as we move farther away in time from the momentous events of last September we perceive each day more clearly the importance of their consequences. As Arnold J. Toynbee says in the January issue of *Foreign Affairs* these events may mark "A Turning Point in History." In a ninety-three-page article of the same copy of *Foreign Affairs* Hamilton Fish Armstrong deals with the nearer events of the crisis, from May to the closing days of September, as a summary of events and an estimate of their effect on the future. "So long as a war has not actually begun it always may in some manner be avoided altogether." Yet he is not hopeful. "Even Mr Chamberlain must feel like saying with the Psalmist, 'I labor for peace, but when I speak unto them thereof they make them ready to battle.'"

FOR the longer view the Public Policy Pamphlets offer *From Versailles to Munich, 1918-1938* by Bernadotte E. Schmitt

(Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1918. 25 cents). The purpose of the Public Policy Pamphlets has been to provide adequate treatments by specialists of problems of acute public interest which are not dealt with by learned publications and concerning which ordinary magazines can hardly publish more than superficial comment, and this clear and readable pamphlet, well within the understanding of high school students, is a very usable account of the events of the last twenty years as they have led up to the present. As far as that seems possible in this near view, it is also an analysis of the whole situation.

"THE War in China Continues" by Rodney Gilbert in the January *Foreign Affairs* describes "a conflict which seems further from adjustment on fair terms today than it has ever been." It does not, however, find space to discuss the announced policies and apparent success of commercial practice of Japan and Germany that threatens to cut off our trade in the Far East nor does it indicate anything of the seriousness of all this to our own trade structure. Reviewing the past briefly and bringing the discussion down to the present it comes to the conclusion that "nothing . . . is left to China but the prospect of wearing Japan down, and this is just as good as the Chinese have the stamina to make it." Such an article as "Agrarian Unrest in Japan" by W. Ladejinsky in the same magazine gives a glimpse of the kind of consideration that will determine the final verdict of fate. Another article in the same issue, "Siam, the Incredible Kingdom," by John Gunther, deals with a country about which all kinds of rumors are afloat, chief among which are the rumors of growing Japanese dominion and of a canal built, to be built, or building with Japanese aid across the Kra peninsula, which will cut off Britain's fabulously armed Singapore from the world's highways of trade. Mr Gunther does not take much stock in these rumors, but, being a publicist, he sees the dramatic value in the threats.

EVEN better testimony on the matter, however, comes from "Siam Manoeuvring Towards Self-sufficiency" in the issue of *Far Eastern Survey* for December 21 by Virginia Thompson. There is no such canal and is not going to be one. Dr Thompson is of course writing as a specialist with a scholar's care for accuracy and detail but she is willing to say that "Siam's affinity for Japan, and notably the Kra Canal bogey, have been of recent years exploited by the indiscriminating press. But Siam's nationalism is in no way tinged with Pan-Asiaticism. In fact her indifference to nationalist movements elsewhere in Asia is very striking. It is obvious that Siam has no intention of acquiring an Asiatic tutelage any more than she formerly wanted a European protectorate."

AND our own Oriental holdings? Manila, Hongkong, Singapore constitute a line of defense that can, it is usually thought by experts, be made unassailable against even a victoriously expanding Japan. For this and perhaps other reasons the United States finds itself willing to reconsider the recently-decided-upon divorce with the Philippines, and the Philippine Islands think also of possible reconciliation. Meantime the Tydings-McDuffie act that was passed in 1935 provides for a gradual separation of the Islands from the United States until they become completely independent in 1946. When that day arrives, it has been decided that sugar exported to the United States will have to pay the whole of the usual duty of 25 per cent, military bases in the Islands will be given up by the United States to Island authorities (although there has been no decision about naval bases), and the responsibility for its own government and defense will rest upon the Islands.

This decision was arrived at in the United States Congress with the help of various factors in American and Philippine life. The three chief of these may be named as: the little publicized but very real anti-imperialist sentiment in the United States, the American sugar interests that wish to

force a tariff on incoming Philippine sugar, and the forty-year-long agitation for independence.

Meanwhile in this past year Japan has renewed her aggressions in China, and the Philippine Islands recognize the difficulties of defending themselves without the industrial development necessary to render successful any war of defense and without any conceivable possibility of building an adequate navy. They would probably be wise enough to make the best possible terms with Japan before the issue was joined, but could those best possible terms be good enough?

Trade and international relations have become increasingly difficult. Recently it has been indicated that the trade channels of the Far East are to be closed to the commerce of all the democratic countries, and opinion in the United States and in the Islands wavers increasingly. Philippine owners of sugar production have always opposed independence, because they fear the effect of the American tariff. It is an interesting spectacle in the present nationalistic world to watch the Filipino sugar interests oppose national independence while the American sugar interests and the Cuban (which are controlled by New York banks) valiantly urge the full and final separation.

MANUEL QUEZON, the sixty-year-old President of the Islands, has for more than a generation led the Filipino agitation for independence and, if he lives, will continue to guide Filipino destinies, whether under the protection of the United States, alone, or with the best bargain he can make with Japan. For that reason one reads with a good deal of interest John Gunther's estimate of "Manuel Quezon" in the *Atlantic* for January. Here I can quote only a small portion. "One could list many of the sources of Quezon's power. For instance, he is indisputably the best orator in the islands in any of three languages, English, Spanish, or Tagalog. His considerable charm, his patriotism, his executive capacity, his curious combination of American characteristics, like aggressive practicality, with a Latin heritage of suppleness and adroit facility in negotiation, all contributed to his career. But his knack of getting along well with both rich and poor, with the miserably fed peasants of the countryside as well as the Spanish millionaires in Manila, is probably his single most valuable characteristic. The masses adore him, because he gives them something. The rich eat out of his hand—when he isn't eating out of theirs—because he guarantees their survival. By using both he has built up an irresistible machine."

National Council for the Social Studies

Department of Social Studies, National Education Association

CLEVELAND MEETING

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1939

10:00 A.M. The Social Studies Curriculum

Pine Room, Statler Hotel

Chairman: Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University, First Vice-President of the National Council for the Social Studies.

"The Function of Social Studies in the Schools of a Democracy." Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland.

"Uses of Mathematics in the Social Studies of the Secondary School." Charles C. Weidemann, University Schools, Ohio State University.

"English and the Social Studies." A. W. Troelstrup, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois.

"Curriculum Issues in the Social Studies." Ernest Horn, University of Iowa.

Discussion: Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University, Editor of *Social Education*.

12:30 P.M. Luncheon

Euclid Room, Statler Hotel

Chairman: Allen Y. King, Supervisor of Social Studies, Cleveland, and Chairman of Local Committee on Arrangements.

"Citizenship Training in School and College." Harold Burton, Mayor of Cleveland.

2:30 P.M. Training for Citizenship

Lattice Room, Statler Hotel

Chairman: Ruth West, The Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, President of the National Council for the Social Studies.

"How Can the Schools Train for Political Citizenship?" W. E. Mosher, Dean, Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University.

Discussion: R. O. Hughes, Director of Social Studies, Pittsburgh.

"Importance of Economic Education to the Training of Citizens in a Democracy." Harold F. Clark, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Discussion: Wilbur I. Gooch, School of Education, Boston University.

6:30 P.M. Dinner Meeting (informal)

Guild Hall

Chairman: Fremont P. Wirth, George Peabody College for Teachers, Second Vice-President of the National Council for the Social Studies.

"Propaganda, Dictatorship, and Democracy." Clyde R. Miller, Teachers College, Columbia University, Executive Secretary, Institute for Propaganda Analysis.

"The Learner Is a Citizen." Joel Hayden, Headmaster, Western Reserve Academy, Cleveland.

RESERVATIONS AND INFORMATION:

The price of luncheon and dinner tickets is \$1.25 each. Reservations should be sent in advance if possible to Allen Y. King, Board of Education, Cleveland.

The Statler Hotel is at Euclid Avenue and East 12th Street. The Guild Hall is in the Republic Building at Prospect and Ontario.

NOTES AND NEWS

FURTHER NEWS OF THE NEW HISTORY EXAMINATIONS, C.E.E.B.

The following correspondence between Dr Caroline F. Ware, the Chairman of the committee appointed to prepare the alternate history examinations for The College Entrance Examination Board, and Dr Conyers Read, the Chairman of the Commission on History of the C.E.E.B., throws further light upon the character of the new examinations. An earlier exchange of letters on the same subject was printed in *Social Education*, September, 1938, pages 399-403.

GEORGE W. MULLINS, Executive Secretary
COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD

December 1, 1938

Dear Dr Ware:

I suppose that the work of the examining committee for the alternative history examinations of the C.E.E.B. is now approaching completion and I wonder if you are now in a position to answer more precisely one of the questions that I asked in my earlier letter and to clear up some points that have come to my attention which are worrying some of the schools.

1. Has your committee defined "Contemporary Civilization" more precisely than you had at the time I wrote before?

2. Is there any limitation upon the students who are permitted to come up for the new examinations?

3. Will students who take these examinations have their grades distributed according to a normal distribution curve with the lower third failing?

Yours sincerely,
CONYERS READ

December 10, 1938

Dear Dr Read:

I acknowledge your letter of December 1. On the basis of the committee's work to date I think I can clear up the questions which you raise.

1. We have taken "Contemporary Civilization" to refer primarily to American civilization. Many schools are offering courses in the senior year in such subjects as economics, sociology, social problems, modern problems, problems of democracy, problems of citizenship, etc., etc. These courses deal mainly with the American scene, although they necessarily include some consideration of the rest of the world. We have drawn up the two-unit examination in American History and Contemporary Civilization with students in such courses as these especially in mind. As I pointed out in my earlier letter, we are not thinking in terms of "current events."

2. As far as the C.E.E.B. is concerned it offers its examinations for anyone who wants to come up for them, regardless of their preparation. It rests with the schools to determine whether or not they wish to send their students up. It rests with the colleges to decide what combination of course work and examination they will accept as satisfying unit entrance requirements. We have formed the English History and American History examination with students in mind who have had courses in English and in American history. Students who have had courses in European history which dwell on English experience or whose courses in American history have dipped far back into the English background of American history might possibly be able to handle this examination. It is anticipated that students who have taken courses in which the approach to the subject has been in accordance with the recom-

recommendations of the Commission on History will be better equipped for these new examinations than students whose training in English and American history has followed the lines of conventional political history. The American History and Contemporary Civilization examination has been prepared with the courses in mind already referred to in my answer to "1." above, but other types of preparation might well be adequate. For example, a student whose American history course had dwelt on contemporary problems might be in a position to handle this examination even though his second unit in history were in some other field.

3. I am assured that the Board does not use "a normal distribution curve with the lower third failing" in any of its examinations; in fact, the Board has no failing mark. The results of its examinations are used by colleges in conjunction with other pertinent information, such as recommendations, school record, and record on other tests, to determine a candidate's fitness. The grades on the history papers will be reported according to the regular procedures of the Board. These procedures provide for reporting upon examinations taken by small groups of candidates as well as examinations taken by large groups. The size of the groups taking the new history examinations will probably be small, and it is therefore expected that the procedures designed for small groups will be used.

Yours sincerely,
CAROLINE F. WARE

NATIONAL COUNCIL AT CHICAGO

The National Council for the Social Studies held a joint luncheon with the American Historical Association in Chicago on December 29. As usual the meeting brought together a large number of college and university professors and secondary teachers. C. C. Barnes, president of the National Council, was chairman. Four short papers on "What Should Be Taught in Junior and Senior High School American History?" were presented by Elmer Ellis of the University of Missouri, Fremont P. Wirth of the George Peabody College for Teachers, John R. Davey of the University of Chicago High School, and Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota—Mr Wesley's paper being read in his enforced absence by Theodore C. Blegen. The papers in full or in summary will

be printed in this journal in an early issue.

At the conclusion of an extended discussion from the floor, a resolution, growing out of a suggestion of Mr Wesley's, was adopted requesting the Executive Committee of the National Council to provide for the further consideration of the topic discussed, and to consider the development of an experimental program to be tried out in the schools.

The officers and former officers present at the convention included Charles C. Barnes, retiring president, Ruth West, now president, Fremont P. Wirth, now second vice-president, Mary Kelty, Bessie L. Pierce, R. M. Tryon, H. C. Hill, A. C. Krey, E. B. Wesley, Elmer Ellis, and W. F. Murra.

An account of the American Historical Association sessions will appear in the *American Historical Review* for April. E. M. H.

NEW YORK CITY

The Association of Social Studies Teachers and the Citizens' Housing Council of New York met at New York University on January 14, under the sponsorship of the New York City Housing Authority. The program was devoted to city planning and housing education.

Harold G. Campbell, superintendent of schools in New York City, presided over a panel presentation, with the following speakers and topics: Commissioner Alfred Rheinsein, chairman, New York City Housing Authority, "How Would Education in Housing Help a Housing Authority?"; Commissioner Lawrence M. Orton, member, City Planning Commission, "What High School Students Should Know about Housing as an Element in the City Plan"; Anna Shepard, supervisor, City Planning and Housing Education, "City Planning and Housing Education in our Schools Today and Reactions to the Program"; and Harold F. Clark, professor of educational economics, Teachers College, Columbia University, "What Part of the School Curriculum Should Be Devoted to City Planning and Housing Education?" The panel was followed by an open forum. J. C. D.

INDIANA

The twentieth annual meeting of the Indiana History Teachers Association was held at Indianapolis on December 10. George Blake of Franklin College presided.

The struggles of Isaac McCoy in his work

with the Miami Indians was the subject of a paper by Professor John F. Cady, dean of Franklin College. Dr Andrew W. Cordier of North Manchester College gave an interesting first hand account of conditions in Europe at the present time.

At the luncheon meeting the superintendent of the Indianapolis City Schools, DeWitt S. Morgan, a former president of the National Council for the Social Studies, was the speaker. In his development of "The Critical Issue in Social Teaching" he stressed the need of upholding American ideals rather than just the teaching of ideas.

Russell T. McNutt of Central High School, Muncie, was elected president of the organization for the coming year; Dr Cordier, North Manchester, vice-president; and Miss Mary Elizabeth Moore, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, secretary.

MISSOURI

The *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* for December includes "Implications of the National Resources Committee Report on Technological Trends" by Harold A. Osgood, vice-president of the Fulton Iron Works, St Louis, in which he discusses the influence on teaching of new communications—radio, television, microphotography—and of the bearing of mechanization on vocational guidance. Kenneth B. Thurston of the East St Louis High School contributes "Implications of the Presidential Study on Social Trends," and Monia Morris of Christian College and Elmer Ellis of the University of Missouri an extremely useful article for Missouri teachers on "Utilizing Missouri Publications in Social Studies Classes." The *Bulletin* is edited by Julian C. Aldrich of Webster Groves.

NORTH DAKOTA

The annual meeting of the Social Studies Section of the North Dakota State Teachers Association was held on October 28 in Fargo, with Miss Mary Nowatzki of the Fargo High School presiding. Myrtle Oberlund of Fargo spoke on "Vitalizing the Teaching of the Social Studies"; Bishop Aloysius Muench on "Human Nature in Economics"; and A. L. Lantz on "How Much History Should We Teach?" Officers for the year 1938-1939 are R. L. Welles, Bismarck, chairman, and Martha Layman, Valley City, secretary. M. L.

LAWS ON TEACHING CITIZENSHIP

In a brief article, accompanied by a tabular summary, in *School Life* for January, Ward W. Keesecker describes the "State Laws Requiring Teaching of Citizenship in the Schools" of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia. He concludes that "the legislature enactments of practically all of the States expressly require the teaching of American government, especially the Constitution of the United States, and a majority of them make it the express duty of public-school teachers to give instruction concerning the nature, ideals, and principles of American democracy," and that they were designed to require "not merely a knowledge of, but also respect for and devotion to those ideals and principles which have constituted the basis of American democracy."

EXPERIMENTAL LEARNING THROUGH TRAVEL

To the December number of *Progressive Education* Elmina R. Lucke of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, contributes "Travel Towards Economic Realities," describing extended trips of ninth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-grade groups in 1937-38, with the aid of grants from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. The ninth grade spent a week in the rural Berkshire Hills of western Massachusetts in November. The eleventh visited the bituminous coal fields of West Virginia in April, and followed up the observation and discussions there by conferring in Washington with government and labor officials. The twelfth grade made carefully planned visits during January in Tennessee, Georgia, North Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland. Miss Lucke stresses the careful planning and followup, including intensive study of books and pamphlets, which were essential to the effectiveness of the experiments.

GUIDANCE

The National Occupational Conference, 551 Fifth Avenue, New York, has issued a series of appraisals and abstracts of available literature on a series of occupations, available at 10 cents a copy. The occupations of the nurse, dental mechanic, stenographic worker, carpenter, cabinet maker, welder, building contractor, plasterer, and musicians are included.

FOREIGN POLICY INSTITUTE

The Foreign Policy Association will hold an institute on "Problems of Our Post-Munich World" at the Hotel Astor, New York City, on Saturday, February 18, to which teachers in public and private secondary schools are invited.

In the morning session William T. Stone, acting-president of the Association, will discuss "Current Legislation on Foreign Policy"; Vera Micheles Dean will speak on "The United States Looks at Europe"; E. C. Carter of the Institute for Pacific Relations on "Problems of the Far East"; and Leland Stowe on "The United States Looks at Latin America." Each speaker after answering questions from the floor will lead a round table discussion. A fifth round table will be led by Clyde R. Miller of Teachers College, Columbia University, on classroom techniques. Henry G. Wellman will describe use of panel discussion in New Rochelle, Ignatius D. Taubeneck use of the radio in Bronxville, Helen Gunder the use of FPA publications and meetings in teaching modern problems at the Hunter College High School, and William Barr of the high school of Milburn, New Jersey, will speak on "The Whole School Program on International Relations."

Following the regular luncheon session from 12:30 to 3:30, the usual Student Forum will give teachers an opportunity to witness an educational experiment in progress with students. Teachers who desire to reserve tables at the luncheon will be given reduced rates; address the Association at 8 West 40th Street.

LEAGUE CONTEST

The Educational Committee of the League of Nations Association has announced its thirteenth annual student contest, to be held April 14, 1939.

Besides the trip to Europe which always tops the list of awards, several important colleges will give scholarships in connection with the contest. Smith College offers a \$500 scholarship, Carleton College in Minnesota a \$300 scholarship, and Radcliffe College a scholarship valued at \$100. Knox College in Illinois will give a \$200 scholarship to the senior submitting the best paper from among nine of the mid-west states. Boston University offers a \$100 scholarship as an award for the best Massa-

chusetts paper. In addition to the national awards cash prizes are available in the following states: California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York City, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

This year's contest will be based not only on study of the organization and activities of the League of Nations as described in the handbook "Essential Facts" and in the Covenant of the League, but also on a third pamphlet by Louise Leonard Wright entitled "Toward a Collective Peace System." This pamphlet was originally written for the National League of Women Voters but by permission of that organization a special student edition has been prepared for the purposes of the contest.

The Committee on Award which will have the task of selecting the winning papers is headed by Mrs Dana Converse Backus of New York. Other members of the committee are: Edgar J. Fisher of the Institute of International Education, James F. Green of the Foreign Policy Association, Ursula P. Hubbard of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Beatrice Hyslop of Hunter College, Elmina R. Lucke of Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Arthur Reeve of the National Peace Conference.

For further information, or registration blanks, address the Committee at 8 West 40th Street, New York.

THE CITIZEN - AMERICAN NUMBER

The November, 1938, issue of *The Citizen*, published by the Association for Education in Citizenship, London, is an "American Number." Mrs Hubback, the editor, who spent part of last year in the United States, comments on "the astonishing number of experiments, the ferment of ideas in this connection, the readiness to examine the fundamental bases of education, and the dominating position taken by the social sciences in the curriculum of a large number of the schools and colleges."

I. L. Kandel, professor of education in Teachers College, Columbia University, contributes "Education for Citizenship in the United States," indicating our preoccupation with education for political citizenship, our stress on modern problems, and the role of

extracurricular activities. Hilda Worthington Smith writes on "The Social Sciences in Workers' Education," giving an enthusiastic and optimistic account of this phase of our adult education. Alice Ball Struthers outlines the "Guiding Principles for a Citizenship Programme" in the Thomas Starr King Junior High School, Los Angeles, where Progressive Education is applied. Integration of subject matter and experience, reorganization around "problem-projects," and pupil activities and creativeness are stressed. Sir Ernest Simon reviews *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* with high approval.

The issue shows us in our most hopeful and enterprising aspect; perhaps we should be grateful that our weaknesses and conflicts have been passed over so lightly.

VISUAL AIDS

Ohio State University has published the *Administration of Visual Aids* (45 pages, mimeographed, in paper, 50 cents), compiled by nine graduate students under the direction of Edgar Dale and Roy Wenger. "The . . . aims of the book are (1) to assist in selection of equipment and materials, (2) suggest techniques, (3) propose training program for teachers, (4) present records and forms already tested, and (5) set up criteria for evaluating visual education material." The chapter titles are: "(I) Visual Aids Equipment, (II) Source of Visual Aid Materials, (III) Technique of Selecting Motion Pictures for Use in the Classroom, (IV) Fitting the Film into the Curriculum, (V) The Technique of Using Motion Pictures as a Teaching Device, (VI) In-Service Teacher Training, (VII) The Organization and Training of Operators, (VIII) The Evaluation of Educational Films, and (IX) Records and Forms Used to Facilitate the Visual Education Program" (*Educational Screen*, December, 1938).

"A film chart, prepared by the United States Film Service of the National Emergency Council, Washington, D. C., gives information about many films produced and distributed by the Federal government. It may be obtained from the Film Service free of charge, and should be of great assistance to persons planning film programs. This office also distributes without charge a film bibliography, which will be sent upon request" (*News Letter*, January, 1939).

CURRENT PROBLEMS

Foreign Affairs. The Foreign Policy Report for December 15 is "The Military Consequences of Munich," by Major George Fielding Eliot; that for January 1 is "Diplomatic Background of Munich Accord," by Vera Micheles Dean, a 19-page chapter from her *Europe in Retreat*, published by Alfred A. Knopf. In the January 15 Report Frederick T. Merrill discusses the human welfare program of the League as it concerns nutrition. These reports are available at 25 cents a copy. Address 8 West 40th Street, New York.

The *Far Eastern Survey* for December 7 carries "Philippine Labor Under the Commonwealth," "British-American Trade Agreements and Japan," and other articles. The December 21 issue includes "Decline in U. S. Arms Shipments to the Far East" and "U. S. Gains, Japan Loses in Philippine Trade Shifts," and that for January 5 "Soviet-Japanese Relations Still Hanging Fire" and "New American Credits to China Have Wide Implications."

The December 15 issue of *Vital Speeches* publishes Henry J. Allen's "Communism Across the Rio Grande: We Are Responsible for It"; that of January 1 "America and the Dictatorships: What Should Be Our Position?" by W. R. Castle; "Inter-American Relations: A Basis for Confidence and Cooperation" by Cordell Hull; and "We Will Uphold the Monroe Doctrine" by Alfred W. Landon.

National Issues. During December two Public Affairs Pamphlets were issued. No. 25, "Machines and Tomorrow's World," by William F. Ogburn, urges the need of planning for effective use of inventions. No. 26, "How Good Are American Colleges?" by Goodwin Watson, is based on *The Student and His Knowledge*, a Report to the Carnegie Foundation . . . presenting devastating data on some American college students and college teaching. The pamphlets are 10 cents each. Address 8 West 40th Street, New York.

Vital Speeches for December 15 prints Anthony Eden's "Problems that Confront Democracy," and Henry A. Wallace's "Common and Conflicting Interests of Farmers and Industrial Labor."

RECENT THESES

The Office of Education announces that the following master's and doctor's theses are now available from its library on interlibrary loan:

Chapman, Florence J. "Use of Biography in Junior High School American History."

Master's, 1935. New Jersey State College for Teachers, Montclair. 81 p. ms.

Price, Roy A. "The Use of Activities in Social Studies: A Critical Study of the Effectiveness of 52 Pupil Activities as Judged by Teachers and Students." Doctor's, 1938. Harvard University. 306 p. ms.

CLAYTON C. KOHL

Clayton C. Kohl, head of the department of history and social science and chairman of the graduate school of Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio, died suddenly on November 10 at the age of 63.

Dr Kohl held a bachelor's degree from the Ohio State University, his doctorate from New York University, and had studied in Berlin and at the University of Leipsic. He had served as teacher, principal, and superintendent in Ohio, professor of education at Mt Holyoke College, and professor of history in New York University. Before going to Bowling Green in 1920 he had taught in the Scott High School, Toledo, and had been director of the teachers' training department of the Toledo public schools.

CORRECTION

Through an unfortunate oversight, the account of the Pittsburgh meeting omitted the names of two new officers of the National Council for the Social Studies. A. K. King of the University of North Carolina was elected to the Executive Committee in place of F. P. Wirth, who was elected second vice-president,

and James A. Michener of the Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, was appointed to the Publications Committee.

RECENT MAGAZINE ARTICLES
ON TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Clark, Harold F. "Housing and the Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, X:12-14, January, 1939. The need for attention to a major problem, with suggestions for its study from the first grade through junior college.

Jarvie, L. I. "Students Take Part in Policy Making," *Clearing House*, XIII:223-25, December, 1938. Pupil assemblies, Wassermann tests, "extracurricular" activities, and formulation of school policies.

Jensen, Alma M. "An Experimental Social Studies Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, X:15-18, January, 1939. Community study along the lines of A. C. Krey's *Regional Course of Study*, in Minnesota towns.

Keesecker, Ward W. "State Laws Requiring Teaching of Citizenship in the Schools," *School Life*, XXIV: 112-13, January, 1939. A tabular summary of state laws requiring the teaching of American government, history, and citizenship in public schools, with brief commentary.

Lucke, Elmina R. "Travel Toward Economic Realities," *Progressive Education*, XV:617-28, December, 1938. Carefully planned travel and investigation by classes in the Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, under a grant from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.

Melby, Ernest O. "Authoritarianism: Enslaving Yoke of Nations and Schools," *Clearing House*, XIII:195-99, December, 1938. Contrast with democracy, and need for teaching and living democracy in schools.

Tildsley, John L. "Latin Is a Social Science Study," *Education*, LIX:212-19, December, 1938. The values of Latin for those qualified to study it.

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest—for "Notes and News." Items for April should be sent in by March 1.

Contributors to this issue include Joseph C. Driscoll, Allen Y. King, Martha Layman, Ruth West, and Howard E. Wilson.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Pageant of Japanese History. By Marion May Dilts. New York: Longmans Green, 1938. Pp. xvi, 380. \$3.00.

Japan's story is not easy telling. Its length is not too cumbersome, for the story of China is twice as long yet easier to narrate. Lop off a thousand years of myth and legend, and Japanese history starts with English history in the fifth century. More difficult to overcome is the fact that Japanese ways of thinking and acting are not only markedly different from ours but often distasteful to us. We feel that the Romans wore thin the idea of a deity emperor nearly two thousand years ago. We wonder what is the makeup of a people who endure so much political, social, economic oppression with so little revolt. The Occidental commonly finds the Japanese harder to understand than his supposed kin, the Chinese, and this in spite of our habitual inability to distinguish the features of a Chinese and a Japanese. We think of the Chinese as a nation that evolved in comparative isolation. Yet the Japanese were still more sheltered from world contacts and received from outside only through the Chinese. The reading of this book should make us a little more understanding in our attitude toward a nation commonly regarded as an international introvert.

This narrative, tracing social and cultural as well as political development, sheds light on much in modern Japan. It is clarifying to learn that Japan in her present international attitude is not running amuck but is running true to the pattern of her history. Is she militaristic abroad? She has ever been given to glorifying the military at home. Is she bent on conquest? Much of her history is taken up with the occupation of the islands proper and occasional expeditions toward the continent. The question is often asked: how long can the Japanese

people stand the burden of present war costs? Read and learn that they long since became inured to a tax load that no western people would long tolerate.

The author has done well to stress the more remote past and to slight the recent. The last two chapters are a hasty summary of events since 1868, necessary to complete the story but quite inadequate as a discussion of modern Japan. Current controversies in the Far East call for an entirely different approach, for they are built on recent events without benefit of perspective. This sketch of Japan's history, reasonably objective as it stands, would have been ruined by argument over the China-Japanese War. The book gives confidence that the author knows the Japanese and sympathizes with this energetic and capable people. She has not however leaned over backward to indulge in hollow eulogy. In brief, here is an excellent popular introduction to Japan, readable, authentic, balanced and not too long. It has a place in every high school library as well as on private shelves.

HENRY C. FENN

Lincoln School
Teachers College
Columbia University

The American Race Problem: A Study of the Negro. By Edward Byron Reuter. New York: Crowell, 1938. rev. ed. Pp. xiii, 430. \$3.00.

The author is a professor of sociology in the University of Iowa. Southern birth, northern training, a teaching career in both regions, and publication of several studies on race relations made him well qualified to undertake an analysis of America's Negro problem. The result was a fearless, highly objective work that appeared in 1928 at a time when Negro migration had made the race question national in

scope. This excellent text penetrated to the marrow of race relations and proved highly stimulating to advanced students. The second edition of this book now brings the statistical analysis up to date, adds a valuable chapter on "The Background of Race Relations," and expands the discussion of the "accommodation" of the races. As revised it remains the most comprehensive and penetrating study of the Negro problem available. Its usefulness as a reference work for less advanced students is great, but sociological terms, abstruse reasoning, and the lack of anecdote and illustrations limit its appeal to the lay reader.

The analysis is restricted to the social problems that stem from the "restricted social status" (p. 29) which Negroes occupy as a result of their distinctive appearance. Negro population statistics and evidence drawn from anthropology and psychological testing are employed at the outset to dispel current misconceptions. Contrary to popular belief, for example, the Negroes are increasing less rapidly than the white population. In regard to race differences the author concludes that the several races are "essentially equal in mental ability and capacity for civilization" (p. 84). An adequate explanation of the cultural retardation of the American Negroes is found in the culture produced by slavery and the plantation system in the antebellum South. Surviving Emancipation and the disappearance of free land, it perpetuates a caste philosophy and racial creed that determine in large measure the contemporary social, economic, and political relations of the races. Race prejudice, which crystallized swiftly after Appomattox when the freedmen sought to escape from their inferior status, explains the subsequent attempt of the white race to perpetuate its superior position by means of the segregation and cultural isolation of the Negroes.

The caste philosophy of the white race holds the key to the problems of Negro health, economic status, delinquency, art and literature. Inferiority in these fields originates in atrocious housing conditions, white indifference to Negro health and domestic relations, a dual standard of justice, gross discrimination by public authorities in the distribution of school funds in the South, deliberate restriction of occupational opportunities, and a host of other discriminations. Lynching, the grossest

and most spectacular instrument of race subordination, springs from prejudice and fear lest the oppressed menials escape from servile status and become economic and social competitors of the dominant race.

Militant race consciousness is the result of such a policy. In America the "Black Omens" of Negro nationalism spring from cultural isolation and discriminations that condemn the race perpetually to inferiority. Supported by Negro intellectuals and businessmen it seeks to win equal treatment by the strategy of Negro solidarity and open race conflict. The futility of such a policy the author recognizes clearly. He might with considerable force have cited the disastrous effects of a similar policy pursued in recent years by the Zionist minority in Palestine. White solidarity and harsh repression are the inevitable reply to militant Negro nationalism. The assimilation of the Negro masses to the existing culture can come only through increased cultural contact with more advanced elements. Self-imposed isolation of the Negro will result in greater retardation.

Offering no solution for what is essentially an insoluble problem Professor Reuter maintains that the best adjustment will come from

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facing frankly the attitudes of the two races and from disseminating the facts of Negro population growth, mental capacity, and present status. The trend of events, he believes, is in the direction of increased seclusion of the Negroes, intensified prejudice, and their "perpetuation as an inferior caste" (p. 419).

Recent developments in the Southern states suggest a modification of this gloomy prophecy. The mobilization of southern opinion against lynching, the widespread attack upon social and economic problems common to both races, the admission of Negroes to jury service in the federal courts, the decision of the Mississippi Supreme Court in the case of *Less Taylor vs J. W. Copeland*, the increased emphasis placed on Negro education, Negro libraries, and Negro health, the propaganda for interracial cooperation, and the development of bi-racial contacts in many fields indicate an increased willingness on the part of the dominant race to admit Negroes to fuller participation in the culture and opportunities of American life.

CHESTER MCA. DESTLER

South Georgia Teachers College
Collegeboro

The New World Past and Present. By Victor L. Webb, Edna Fay Campbell, William L. Nida. Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1938. Pp. viii, 486. \$1.84.

This book is a revision of the Nida and Webb *Our Country Past and Present* and is intended as a companion volume to *The Old World Past and Present* by the same authors. An attempt is made to give, to fifth- and sixth-grade pupils, "an introductory survey of the world" of history, geography, and civics. It has succeeded in an attempt to blend the history and geography of the United States in order to show "how the nature of the land has affected the varied pattern of life" and "how men have in part brought the land under control." It unquestionably gives "a more intimate picture of people," both historical and fictional, in the act of living, and thus it builds for the child a "definite connection" between life past and present. However, only in part and in varied degrees is shown how men "have adjusted to the land and to each other."

The organization of the book calls for a discussion of the early history of the sectional unit (not a regional unit) being developed, followed

by the present geographic-economic picture. The sequence of units is primarily chronological. The history is excellent for the grade level; the geography is good, but still too much emphasis is put on place, descriptive, and economic geography and too little on human ecology (human geography). At times, such as in the paragraphs "A Tourist Ramble" (p. 68) or "Play-Time" (p. 103), a veritable geographic hopscotch results. The civics involved is minute and in places missing altogether.

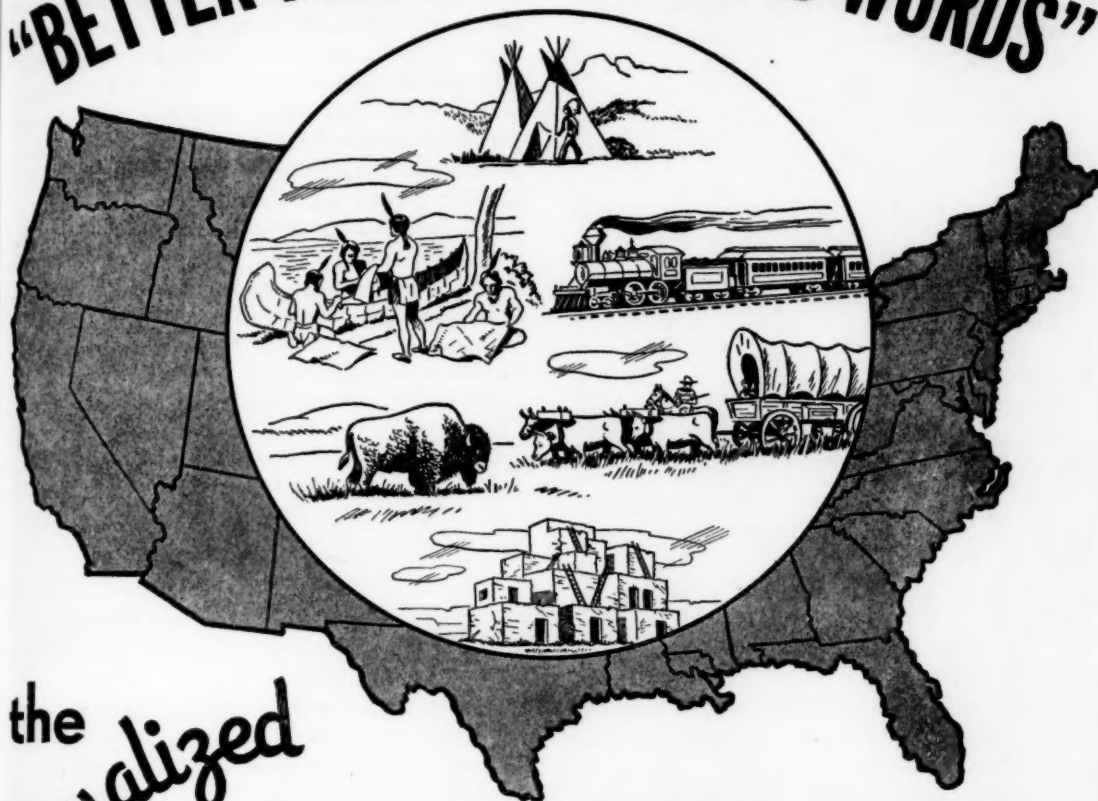
The amalgamation of history and geography is at its best in the development of the United States west of the Mississippi. Special attention should be drawn to the sections "Lewis and Clark Explore the Louisiana Territory" and "The Southwest Today." Here is true justification for the combination of subjects. Excellent verbal pictures, in story form, are given of sheep and cattle ranching, and cotton and corn farming of today, but missing are such pictures as slum and mountaineer life, and the southern tenant farm or the Pennsylvania mining town. An excellent opportunity has been completely missed to include the social studies topic of conservation. The references to waste are few; soil erosion rates only a picture; reforestation, hatcheries, and mineral fuel preservation and permanence are neglected. There are, however, well integrated stories of such historic characters as Boone, Fulton, Fremont, Carson, Whitney, Edison.

The pictures are excellent throughout and are distinctly a teaching aid. The colored maps are clear, uncongested, and geographically adequate. The diction is intelligible and stimulating. The reference tables are factually more than sufficient and the index adequate. The last eighty-eight pages of the text add units on: Our Territorial Possessions, Our Northern Neighbor, Our Southern Neighbor, Central America and the West Indies, and Our Sister Continent. By comparison with the treatment given the United States it is a mere appendix to the book—a prose reference table utterly inadequate and not following the ordinary, established methods of organization. It barely, if at all, can be said to fulfill the authors' claim that it is an "introductory survey."

RICHARD L. TUTHILL

Teachers College
Columbia University

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You and Your Community. By L. J. O'Rourke. Boston: Heath, 1938. Pp. xxviii, 691. \$1.84.

Addicted as the reviewer is to a new fanatical belief in the utter necessity of confronting the adolescent with the real world about him, this work is most heartening. Here is a book most of the contents of which have been hammered out on the anvil of adolescent experience. Enlisting the interest and cooperation of some twenty-five thousand civic club members and their teachers the Civics Research Institute has enabled the author to make this study a stimulating cooperative enterprise.

The spirit of the entire volume is reflected in a quotation the author makes from a remark of Professor Bode. "To deal effectively with present-day conditions requires something more than a state of mind." The students and teachers who cooperated in the Institute's program of community study were aided and encouraged in coming to grips with current conditions in their own communities. Every reference to the functions of community agencies is accompanied by suggestions for opportunities for direct observation and, in many cases, participation by pupils. It is readily admitted that nothing so helps to give the individual a sense of place, a feeling of belonging, as does an appreciation of, and participation in, community affairs. Competition serves to make keener those engaged in business. Democracy today is confronted with frighteningly keen competition. It is of desperate importance that high school pupils be sharpened to a preparedness for a higher type of civic performance than their predecessors show.

The book is divided into six parts, the first of which is called "Your Community and What It Does for You." So much current discussion relates to the cost of government that the placing of this section at the beginning of the book serves to remind the reader that he does obtain for his tax money numerous valuable services. The following four parts are devoted to the "Organization and Functions of Governments," "Getting and Spending Government Money," "The Economic Life of Modern Communities," and "Some Problems of Our Economic Life." The last section is of particular worth and is called "The World's Workers and Their Work." Among other things it contains chapters analyzing the activities of and outlook for workers in agriculture, mining, industry,

commerce, fishing, and the professions. A final chapter, and one extremely well done, "You and Your Work," is given over to a discussion of trends in and analyses of jobs, sets up a battery of questions relating to virtually any type of work, touches adequately the subject of personal fitness and preparation, suggests job-hunting techniques and a score of other pertinent phases of getting and keeping a job.

Out of a background of university teaching experience followed by a period of research in government, the author has brought to his subject a splendid sense of what type of preparation will best equip secondary school pupils to assume the full mantle of adult citizenship.

ELDON W. MASON

Marshall High School
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Cooperative Supervision in the Public Schools.

By Alonzo F. Myers, Louise M. Kifer, Ruth C. Merry, and Frances Foley. New York: Prentice Hall, 1938. Pp. xviii, 340. \$2.50.

This book is addressed to teachers as well as to supervisory and administrative officers. Four major assumptions given on page 13 sound the keynote of the book: "(1) In a democracy, the dominant aim should be preservation and perpetuation of democratic ideals, traditions, and practices. (2) Education itself must be democratic if it is to accomplish its first purpose. (3) We cannot expect to find a democratic relationship between teachers and pupils if there is not a democratic relationship between teachers and supervisors. (4) The amount and kind of supervision needed depends primarily upon the qualifications of the teaching staff." By tracing the development of teacher training in the past century and the rise in requirements for certificates, the authors indicate how teachers have come to be capable of planning and directing their own work, with supervisors acting only as consultants and coordinators.

About one half of the book is given to the education and training of teachers. The authors outline changes that seem imminent: broader general education before professional specialization is begun, more careful selection of those to be admitted to professional study, lengthening the total period of collegiate and professional training to five years, more extended and vital practical experience paralleling the entire period of professional study, an "internship"

and continuous in-service education (p. 42). A twenty-five page quotation from a bulletin of the New Jersey State Teachers College at Newark gives that institution's detailed plan of teacher training, placement, and follow-up technique. A ten-page plan for internship in operation in the Grosse Pointe, Michigan schools is reproduced, and excerpts from beginning teachers' diaries help to explain the program of professional adjustment recommended for beginning teachers. In the survey of professional in-service improvement the book emphasizes the need of active teacher participation in society, wide reading, travel, and observation, to fit the teacher to carry through the experience curriculum made up of large activities cutting across the conventional subject matter lines. "The high-school teacher will find his activities will be similar to those of the modern elementary school teacher in that he will be expected to be a generalist rather than a subject matter specialist" (p. 142).

The last half of the book is given to consideration of the three special subjects, music, art, and physical education, which are represented as not so much taught as experienced. "In the modern school prearranged courses of

study, definite time schedules and the division of the school into periods for the recitation of separate subjects are as obsolete as hoop skirts and oxcarts" (p. 181). In a modern scheme of education, then, the role of special subject supervisor is becoming one of consultant in a field much broader than has usually been considered his. A number of pictures of school activities illustrate this part of the book. A bibliography is given with each unit of the book.

The book is challenging to those in teacher training courses and for those in the special subjects named, and it is helpful with its definite suggestions especially in follow-up work in teacher training. Although the theme of co-operative supervision does run through the book, it seems that a title indicating teacher training would better suggest its content. Some of the indictments of our schools may seem extreme and severe, such as, "Our schools are largely schools for the prevention of thought rather than schools for the development of the ability to think" (p. 12) and the "hoop skirt and oxcart" condemnation of prearranged courses of study, but no doubt the authors feel the necessity of stinging words to

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RUTH M. JOHNSON

Wisconsin High School
University of Wisconsin

Guidance by the Classroom Teacher. By Philip W. L. Cox and John Carr Duff. New York: Prentice Hall, 1938. Pp. xxv, 535. \$3.00.

Two rebels from the New York University School of Education have burst loose against the sacred things of the educational vested interests. They are more dangerous than the general run of unassimilated elements in that they are able to communicate their sedition with remarkable clarity, directness, and force. They repeatedly flay the old order of education, because "Its marks, failures, shames, ineligibility rules, detentions, suspensions, and other punishments—chiefly connected with its obsolete curriculum—are vestiges of the ancient discredited and repressive social system" (p. 8). On the positive side, they present a philosophy of education of which guidance is an integral part. Such stated objectives of the high school as democratic and social living, character education, personality integration, health education, leisure time interests, and worthy home membership are accepted without cavil. The only difficulty, they protest, is that current practice makes little effort to achieve them, as it is based on *subject getting*. *Subject getting*, especially in those subjects upon which classical and medieval tradition rests heavily, can bring little aid in living today; and even in fields pertinent to life today it is of limited importance, for "how much children learn is less important than how they learn it and how they feel about it" (p. 81).

The way to attain these objectives is certainly not through teacher-directed recitations based on textbook memorization and motivated by extrinsic sanctions. "Living organisms grow from the inside. Their growth is not accomplished or accelerated by plastering things on the outside, for these plastered things never become part of the living child" (p. 75). "The most direct attack . . . is through the stimulation of the pupils to set up objectives which are for them dynamic and worthwhile" (p. 9).

In order to help students set up these objectives and achieve them, a need exists for the aid of an older and more experienced person, a

counselor or guide as in the club program. Thus "the major work of guidance must be done by classroom and homeroom teachers" (p. 14). The function of the guidance specialist, on the other hand, is "(a) to stimulate, guide, and check the guidance activities of teachers and (b) to give specialized expert help where necessary" (p. 14).

The authors believe that such a system of education can aid in the reform of the social order. "The generation in high school today has within it the potentialities of just such a stodgy, stupid, tradition-bound adulthood as ours is, and it has within it the power to blow our social structure to smithereens; but it also has within it the potentialities of the millennium. And nothing less than the millennium is our goal" (p. 3). Whether the new social order should be a reformed capitalism or a new system, the authors leave to the future.

The authors have made a much needed contribution by indicating the place of guidance in progressive education and its relation to a liberal outlook on a changing society. This should tend to offset a prevalent reactionary tendency in many guidance quarters. The book deserves the attention of all educators, personnel workers, and intellectually minded parents. Its crowning recognition probably will be its adoption as a textbook for many introductory courses in education and guidance.

RICHARD J. WILLIAMS

Central High School
Scranton, Pennsylvania

Education by Radio in American Schools. By Carroll Atkinson. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1938. Pp. xi, 126.

The time has come, the author of this study maintains, for education by radio in America to pause and ask itself, "Where do we go from here?" But, in order to chart a future course in this field, we must examine where we have been, as well as where we are now. The examination of the experiences of state and territory departments of education, of 1,227 school systems (representing population centers of 8,000 or more inhabitants), and of 827 universities, colleges, and teachers colleges constitutes a solid foundation upon which to base conclusions and recommendations concerning education by radio in American schools. About

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half of these groups, it was discovered, engage in some broadcasting of an educational nature, and three-quarters of the school systems studied reported that they are making regular classroom use, limited or otherwise, of radio programs, the majority of which originate with the three major networks. To such an extent has educational radio expanded through approximately seventeen years of what the author aptly terms its "trial-and-error period."

From an examination of this expansion, it is possible to surmise "the future implications of radio as an educational tool as judged by past experiences and present practices." Those charged with direction of policy in both the schools and the radio industry might well ponder the author's conclusions. The state departments, he says, should go on the air with "a state-wide public relations program" stressing adult education as a medium. These state bodies should not only make available for the schools under their jurisdiction information concerning suitable radio programs but also encourage and provide proper equipment for reception. As for the school systems, it appears that they can best provide programs for classroom use, with student motivation through participation an important factor. It is suggested that institutions of higher learning consider "purchase of broadcasting stations for operation on a commercial or semi-commercial basis," with the federal government and public school systems joining as cooperating agencies in the utilization of such radio facilities. In order to provide teachers and radio specialists trained to make the best use of this new teaching medium there is a growing need for instruction in radio production and classroom techniques, especially in the teachers colleges. The author's proposal that the Federal Communications Commission establish an "educational complaint bureau," in order to protect educational broadcasting interests, seems to lack vitality, but it serves to stimulate thought concerning the positive action which might be taken by the ruling body of American radio, acting as a link between the industry and the educational world.

Several facts brought out in this study indicate the need for a further survey of utilization of radio in schools located in population centers of less than eight thousand inhabitants. The author also points out that the Southern

and Southwestern states, and those in the Rocky Mountain area, are making much less use of broadcast materials in their schools than does the rest of the nation. This being the case, in spite of the national distribution of school programs by the networks, it is obvious that special attention must be given to the problem of encouraging teachers outside the more thickly settled regions to take advantage of the offerings of radio in their teaching.

Not only has the author of this study provided a blueprint of the major portion of American educational radio. He has gone on to make specific recommendations whereby it may avoid repetition of past mistakes and may make its contribution to the nation's schools more effective. We need more such groundwork in this highly controversial field. Education by radio is growing up.

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